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# RURAL SCHOOL SURVEY *of* NEW YORK STATE

THE TEACHING PERSONNEL
WILLIAM C. BAGLEY

THE ELEMENTARY CURRICULUM
ORVILLE G. BRIM

COMMUNITY RELATIONS
MABEL CARNEY

Ithaca, New York
1923
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# FOREWORD

THERE are included in this volume of the Rural School Survey of New York State three phases of this study, viz., the Teaching Personnel, the Elementary Curriculum, and Community Relations. The organization of the survey placed curriculum and course of study problems in the section dealing with the teaching staff. Dr. Bagley was in charge of this section. Dr. Brim's study on the curriculum was conducted under Dr. Bagley's general direction. The section dealing with community relations was in Professor Carney's charge.

The studies were made possible by a grant from the Commonwealth Fund. A portion of the expense of printing this report was also borne by this organization.

GEO. A. WORKS,
*Director.*

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# PART I

# THE TEACHING PERSONNEL OF THE RURAL SCHOOLS

WILLIAM C. BAGLEY

## CHAPTER I

## PURPOSE AND METHOD OF THE STUDY

THE following chapters aim first to set forth the principal facts regarding the teachers of the rural elementary schools of New York State, with particular reference to (a) their age; (b) the occupational and economic status of the families from which they are recruited; (c) the conditions under which they live and work; (d) their financial compensation, their expenditures, and their savings; and (e) their education, both general and professional. Upon the basis of the facts as thus set forth, a critical evaluation of the rural schools as represented by their teaching-personnel will be attempted. The study will conclude with a suggested program for the improvement of the rural schools through the improvement of the teaching-personnel.

The facts have been gathered in part through a questionnaire addressed to the teachers of the rural schools. This questionnaire was distributed by the district superintendents at teachers' meetings in the spring of 1921. After being filled out by the teachers, the questionnaires were returned to the district superintendents and sent to the director of the Survey. The information thus obtained was collated under the direction of the present writer by a specially organized statistical staff each member of which was in a position to appreciate the need of care and accuracy in making the tabulations.[1]

[1] This staff worked under the close supervision of Dr. Charles Russell, assistant professor of education in the University of Toledo, on leave of absence for graduate study in Teachers College, Columbia University. Dr. Russell personally compiled the tables which appear in this report.

The questionnaire for the teachers is reprinted as Appendix E of this volume. A second questionnaire (Appendix F) was sent to the teachers of the high-school training classes. The replies form in large part the factual basis for the discussion of the education of the rural school teachers. (See below, chapters VI and VII.) A third source of information had reference also to the work of the high-school training classes. Five persons were delegated to visit these classes, observe the work, and confer with the training-class teachers. These persons were selected on the basis of their familiarity with the problems involved in the preparation of rural-school teachers.[1] A summary of their reports is given in chapter VII.

Two additional sources of information may be mentioned. (a) In 1919 the State Department of Education made a study of the teaching population. This study, which was under the direction of Mr. Fred Englehardt, has not as yet been published, but the present writer has had access to the mimeographed report. Because the distributions were upon the basis of groups of schools rather than of individual records, it was not possible accurately to compute from Mr. Englehardt's data medians that would be strictly comparable with the medians computed from our own data. Such medians were, however, approximated with sufficient accuracy, we believe, to bring out the important differences among the different groups of teachers. (b) In making comparisons of the rural-school teachers of New York with similar groups in other states, use has been made of the published reports of surveys and investigations, as well as of official Federal, State, and city documents.

The interpretative and constructive sections of the present report necessarily assume a theory of rural education as a background against which to project the facts which the earlier sections set forth. The principles and assumptions which constitute this theory will be clearly implied and in some cases explicitly formulated in chapter VIII.

[1] The visitors were as follows: Katherine Hayes, Mabel W. Vanderhoof, G. W. Shallies, Marion Forsythe, Dr. Fannie W. Dunn, Adelaide M. Ayers.

## CHAPTER II

# DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL-SCHOOL TEACHERS AS TO SEX, AGE, AND EXPERIENCE

THE public elementary and high schools of New York State employed in 1920–21 approximately 55,700 teachers, including as such not only classroom teachers, but also principals, supervisors, and superintendents. Of this number, 16,596 served in schools that are under the supervision of the district superintendents. The present study is concerned with three groups: teachers of one-teacher schools; teachers of two-teacher schools; and teachers of village elementary schools, including in this third category all schools under the supervision of district superintendents which have more than two teachers. The typical open-country school is the one-teacher school, and it is here that our chief interest lies.

The distributions in the tables that follow are based upon replies from 2,493 teachers: 1,492 of these were serving in one-teacher schools in 1920–21; 237 were in two-teacher schools; 695 were classroom teachers in village elementary schools; 47 were principals of village schools; 22 are grouped as unclassified because of the impossibility of determining from the questionnaires the precise character of their work. The report is based, then, upon information obtained from 20 percent of the teachers in one-teacher and two-teacher schools, and 13 percent of the teachers and principals of village elementary schools, of the 9,045 rural teachers. In view of the fact that all of the important rural counties of the State are represented (see distribution of returns by counties, Appendix C), it may be assumed that the group studied is fairly typical of the rural-school teachers of the State.

The outstanding facts regarding these teachers are revealed in the following tables of distribution. Medians and ranges are

explicitly set forth only when they seemed important for purposes of comparison.

### Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to Sex, Age, and Length of Service

Very few men serve as teachers in the rural schools of New York. If the proportions disclosed by our study may be generalized, the total number of men in the one-teacher schools of the State is not more than 500 out of 8,400, or 5.8 percent. In the two-teacher schools, the proportion is somewhat higher—8 percent. In the village elementary schools, the proportion drops to 3 percent. More than one-half of the village principals are men, however.

Table 1.—Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to Sex

| | One-teacher schools | Percent | Two-teacher schools | Percent | Village Elementary | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Men | 86 | 5.86 | 19 | 8.01 | 22 | 3.16 |
| Women | 1,406 | 94.23 | 218 | 91.99 | 673 | 96.84 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. |

| | Village principals | Percent | Unclassified | Percent | Total | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Men | 26 | 55.31 | 1 | 4.54 | 154 | 6.17 |
| Women | 21 | 44.69 | 21 | 95.46 | 2,339 | 93.83 |
| Totals | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

The largest proportions of immature teachers are found as usual in the one-teacher schools. Especially noteworthy, however, is the advance in median age as one passes from the one-teacher to the

two-teacher schools, where the typical teacher is nearly four years older than the typical teacher of the former group and only a year younger than the typical village teacher.

TABLE 2.—DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL-SCHOOL TEACHERS AS TO PRESENT AGE

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report.. | 35 | 2.34 | 14 | 5.90 | 49 | 7.05 | 4 | 8.51 | 5 | 22.72 | 107 | 4.29 |
| 18 | 16 | 1.07 | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 17 | .69 |
| 19 | 128 | 8.57 | 8 | 3.37 | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | 2 | 9.09 | 139 | 5.57 |
| 20 | 154 | 10.32 | 15 | 6.32 | 13 | 1.87 | .. | .. | 3 | 13.63 | 185 | 7.42 |
| 21 | 156 | 10.45 | 13 | 5.48 | 33 | 4.74 | .. | .. | 2 | 9.09 | 204 | 8.18 |
| 22 | 116 | 7.77 | 16 | 6.75 | 35 | 5.03 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 168 | 6.73 |
| 23 | 109 | 7.37 | 12 | 5.06 | 54 | 7.76 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 176 | 7.05 |
| 24 | 76 | 5.09 | 17 | 7.17 | 51 | 7.33 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 145 | 5.81 |
| 25 | 72 | 4.82 | 14 | 5.90 | 45 | 6.47 | 4 | 8.51 | .. | .. | 135 | 5.41 |
| 26 | 66 | 4.42 | 6 | 2.53 | 40 | 5.75 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 114 | 4.57 |
| 27 | 47 | 3.15 | 17 | 7.17 | 32 | 4.60 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 97 | 3.89 |
| 28 | 63 | 4.28 | 13 | 5.48 | 37 | 5.32 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 115 | 4.61 |
| 29 | 49 | 3.28 | 9 | 3.79 | 20 | 2.87 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 79 | 3.17 |
| 30 | 37 | 2.47 | 11 | 4.64 | 20 | 2.87 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 70 | 2.81 |
| 31 | 27 | 1.80 | 7 | 2.95 | 21 | 3.02 | 1 | 4.54 | .. | .. | 56 | 2.25 |
| 32 | 25 | 1.67 | 3 | 1.26 | 11 | 1.58 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 40 | 1.61 |
| 33 | 18 | 1.20 | 5 | 2.10 | 20 | 2.87 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 45 | 1.81 |
| 34 | 29 | 1.94 | 8 | 3.37 | 9 | 1.29 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 48 | 1.93 |
| 35 | 18 | 1.20 | 3 | 1.26 | 14 | 2.01 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 35 | 1.41 |
| 36 | 16 | 1.07 | 5 | 2.10 | 12 | 1.72 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 33 | 1.33 |
| 37 | 21 | 1.40 | 1 | .42 | 13 | 1.87 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 37 | 1.49 |
| 38 | 17 | 1.13 | 4 | 1.68 | 8 | 1.15 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 29 | 1.17 |
| 39 | 20 | 1.34 | 2 | .84 | 17 | 2.44 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 40 | 1.61 |
| 40 | 18 | 1.20 | .. | .. | 12 | 1.72 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 31 | 1.25 |
| 41 | 6 | .40 | 4 | 1.68 | 9 | 1.29 | 3 | 6.38 | 1 | 4.54 | 23 | .93 |
| 42 | 14 | .93 | 1 | .42 | 8 | 1.15 | 5 | 10.63 | .. | .. | 28 | 1.13 |
| 43 | 11 | .73 | 4 | 1.68 | 8 | 1.15 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 23 | .93 |
| 44 | 9 | .60 | 2 | .84 | 7 | 1.00 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 18 | .73 |
| 45 | 18 | 1.20 | 2 | .84 | 10 | 1.43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 30 | 1.21 |
| 46 | 10 | .67 | 1 | .42 | 10 | 1.43 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 23 | .93 |
| 47 | 12 | .80 | 3 | 1.26 | 6 | .86 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 22 | .89 |
| 48 | 9 | .60 | 1 | .42 | 7 | 1.00 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 17 | .69 |
| 49 | 7 | .46 | .. | .. | 10 | 1.43 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 20 | .81 |
| 50 and over... | 63 | 4.22 | 15 | 6.32 | 53 | 7.62 | 11 | 23.40 | 2 | 9.09 | 144 | 5.77 |
| Totals. | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

| | Median age | Range of 1st (youngest) fourth | Range of 4th (oldest) fourth |
|---|---|---|---|
| Teachers in one-teacher schools | 23.7 | 18–21 | 30 and older |
| Teachers in two-teacher schools | 27.6 | 18–23 | 33 " " |
| Teachers in village schools | 28.5 | 19–24 | 37 " " |
| Elementary teachers in forty New York cities of the third class | 29 | Medians approximated from Englehardt's study. | |
| Elementary teachers in seven New York cities of the second class | 34 | | |

It is to be noted that there are no significant differences among the three groups of teachers as to beginning age. The differences in length of service are, however, most significant. Teachers in two-

TABLE 3.—DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL-SCHOOL TEACHERS AS TO AGE OF ENTERING THE SERVICE AND LENGTH OF SERVICE

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 25 | 1.67 | 5 | 2.10 | 21 | 3.02 | 1 | 2.12 | 11 | 50.00 | 63 | 2.52 |
| 14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 15 | 7 | .46 | 1 | .42 | 4 | .57 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 14 | .56 |
| 16 | 29 | 1.94 | 8 | 3.37 | 21 | 3.02 | 6 | 12.76 | 1 | 4.54 | 65 | 2.60 |
| 17 | 43 | 2.88 | 8 | 3.37 | 24 | 3.45 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 78 | 3.12 |
| 18 | 527 | 35.32 | 79 | 33.33 | 191 | 27.48 | 12 | 25.53 | 3 | 13.63 | 812 | 32.57 |
| 19 | 371 | 24.86 | 49 | 20.67 | 131 | 18.84 | 5 | 10.63 | 4 | 18.18 | 560 | 22.46 |
| 20 | 248 | 16.62 | 44 | 18.56 | 132 | 18.99 | 9 | 19.14 | 1 | 4.54 | 434 | 17.40 |
| 21 | 123 | 8.24 | 26 | 10.97 | 85 | 12.23 | 3 | 6.38 | 1 | 4.54 | 238 | 9.54 |
| 22 | 56 | 3.75 | 6 | 2.53 | 43 | 6.18 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 107 | 4.29 |
| 23 | 19 | 1.27 | 4 | 1.68 | 20 | 2.87 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 44 | 1.76 |
| 24 | 11 | .73 | 4 | 1.68 | 10 | 1.43 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 27 | 1.08 |
| 25 | 4 | .26 | 1 | .24 | 4 | .57 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 10 | .40 |
| 26 | 11 | .73 | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 13 | .52 |
| 27 | 5 | .33 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5 | .20 |
| 28 | 3 | .20 | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5 | .20 |
| 29 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 30 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 31 | 4 | .26 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5 | .20 |
| 32 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 33 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 34 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 35 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 36 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 37 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 40 | .. | .. | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 42 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 47 | .. | .. | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 48 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 62 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

Median age of beginning teaching

| | |
|---|---|
| Teachers of one-teacher schools | 19 |
| Teachers of two-teacher schools | 19 |
| Village elementary teachers | 19 |
| Village principals | 18 |

teacher schools as a group have taught more than twice as long as have teachers in one-teacher schools and approximate closely the

TABLE 4.—NUMBER OF YEARS' EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 21 | 1.40 | 5 | 2.10 | 22 | 3.16 | 1 | 2.12 | 11 | 50.00 | 60 | 2.40 |
| 1 year or less | 317 | 21.24 | 23 | 9.70 | 38 | 5.46 | .. | .. | 3 | 13.63 | 381 | 15.27 |
| 2 | 225 | 15.14 | 29 | 12.23 | 48 | 6.90 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 302 | 12.11 |
| 3 | 175 | 11.72 | 13 | 5.48 | 67 | 9.64 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 257 | 10.30 |
| 4 | 113 | 7.57 | 13 | 5.48 | 56 | 8.05 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 183 | 7.34 |
| 5 | 91 | 6.09 | 20 | 8.43 | 67 | 9.64 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 181 | 7.26 |
| 6 | 80 | 5.36 | 14 | 5.90 | 39 | 5.61 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 136 | 5.45 |
| 7 | 64 | 4.28 | 11 | 4.64 | 39 | 5.61 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 114 | 4.57 |
| 8 | 57 | 3.82 | 26 | 10.97 | 38 | 5.46 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 123 | 4.93 |
| 9 | 50 | 3.35 | 8 | 3.37 | 22 | 3.16 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 82 | 3.28 |
| 10 | 40 | 2.68 | 10 | 4.21 | 32 | 4.60 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 83 | 3.32 |
| 11 | 30 | 2.01 | 10 | 4.21 | 21 | 3.02 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 61 | 2.44 |
| 12 | 28 | 1.87 | 4 | 1.68 | 12 | 1.72 | 2 | 4.25 | 2 | 9.09 | 48 | 1.92 |
| 13 | 14 | .93 | 5 | 2.10 | 20 | 2.97 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 40 | 1.60 |
| 14 | 17 | 1.13 | 7 | 2.95 | 13 | 1.87 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 39 | 1.56 |
| 15 | 23 | 1.54 | 7 | 2.95 | 17 | 2.44 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 48 | 1.92 |
| 16 | 16 | 1.07 | .. | .. | 21 | 3.02 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 38 | 1.52 |
| 17 | 9 | .60 | 5 | 2.10 | 5 | .71 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 20 | .80 |
| 18 | 13 | .87 | 2 | .84 | 10 | 1.43 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 28 | 1.12 |
| 19 | 9 | .60 | 1 | .42 | 9 | 1.29 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 19 | .76 |
| 20 | 16 | 1.07 | 2 | .84 | 13 | 1.87 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 33 | 1.32 |
| 21 | 6 | .40 | .. | .. | 7 | 1.00 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 15 | .60 |
| 22 | 4 | .26 | .. | .. | 7 | 1.00 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 13 | .52 |
| 23 | 12 | .80 | 3 | 1.26 | 6 | .86 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 24 | .96 |
| 24 | 7 | .46 | 1 | .42 | 8 | 1.15 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 18 | .72 |
| 25 | 10 | .67 | 10 | 4.21 | 9 | 1.29 | 4 | 8.51 | .. | .. | 33 | 1.32 |
| 26 | 12 | .80 | .. | .. | 3 | .43 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 17 | .68 |
| 27 | 5 | .33 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 6 | .24 |
| 28 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 5 | .71 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 9 | .36 |
| 29 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 5 | .71 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 7 | .28 |
| 30 | 5 | .33 | 5 | 2.10 | 7 | 1.00 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 19 | .76 |
| 31 | 4 | .26 | .. | .. | 7 | 1.00 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 11 | .44 |
| 32 | 3 | .20 | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5 | .20 |
| 33 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | 3 | .43 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 5 | .20 |
| 34 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | 5 | .71 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 7 | .28 |
| 35 | 3 | .20 | 2 | .84 | 5 | .71 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 11 | .44 |
| 36 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 37 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 38 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 39 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 40 | .. | .. | 1 | .42 | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 41 | .. | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 42 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 43 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 44 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 45 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 46 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 47 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 1 | .04 |
| 48 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Totals. | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

| | Median years' experience | Range first fourth (shortest experience) | Range fourth fourth (longest experience) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Teachers in one-teacher schools of New York | 3.16 years | 0–1.22 years | 8–46 years |
| Teachers in two-teacher schools of New York | 6.36 " | 0–2.46 " | 11–40 " |
| Teachers in village schools of New York | 6.59 " | 0–3.28 " | 14–48 " |
| Elementary teachers in fifty New York cities of the third class | 11.0 years | Medians approximated from Englehardt's study. | |
| Elementary teachers in seven New York cities of the second class | 13.0 years | | |

length of service of teachers in village elementary schools. All three groups of rural-school teachers, however, are distinctly "short-

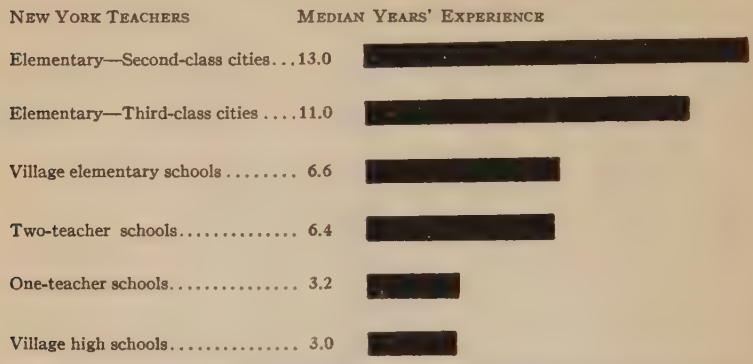



Diagram 1.—Teaching experience of teachers in different types of New York schools

term" teachers as compared with those in the second-class and third-class cities.

## CHAPTER III

# THE FAMILIES FROM WHICH RURAL-SCHOOL TEACHERS ARE RECRUITED

INFORMATION regarding the families that supply rural-school teachers was sought for the following reasons: (1) It is generally believed that the best rural-school teachers, other things equal, are those who are familiar with open-country life and appreciative of its problems. It is well to know, then, what proportions of the rural-school teachers are now being recruited from rural homes. (2) If it be granted that the rural schools should draw their teachers largely from rural homes, and if it be further granted that the rural schools should have teachers who are at least as well prepared through general and professional education for their work as are urban-school teachers, it is clear that the economic status of the families now supplying teachers must be considered in the construction of a program for the education of rural teachers. (3) In determining whether a family is able to provide adequate educational equipment for a prospective teacher, not only the financial resources of the family but also the number of children must be considered; this factor also has some measure of significance in connection with the development of the "sense of responsibility," especially if the prospective teacher happens to be one of the older children in a relatively large family. (4) The nationality of the parents likewise becomes a factor of significance if it be granted that an important function of American education is to conserve and strengthen American ideals.

### (A) Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to the Type of Community in Which They Spent Their Childhood and as to Parental Occupation

The open-country homes, then, supply two-thirds of the teachers in one-teacher schools, and about three-fifths of the teachers in the

two-teacher schools. The decline of country-bred teachers in the two-teacher schools is especially significant in view of the still further decline as one passes to the village elementary group. The proportion of country-bred teachers in the village high schools (to which the children of the open country are largely limited for whatever opportunities for secondary education they may enjoy)

TABLE 5.—WHERE THE RURAL-SCHOOL TEACHERS SPENT THEIR CHILDHOOD

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report.. | 65 | 4.35 | 9 | 3.79 | 40 | 5.89 | 5 | 10.63 | 4 | 18.18 | 123 | 4.93 |
| City.... | 64 | 4.28 | 10 | 4.21 | 67 | 9.64 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 143 | 5.73 |
| Village.. | 358 | 23.99 | 76 | 32.06 | 292 | 42.01 | 18 | 38.29 | 7 | 31.81 | 751 | 30.12 |
| Open Country... | 1,005 | 67.35 | 142 | 59.91 | 296 | 42.59 | 23 | 48.93 | 10 | 45.45 | 1,476 | 59.20 |
| Totals. | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

TABLE 6.—OCCUPATION OF FATHER OR GUARDIAN DURING THE TEACHER'S CHILDHOOD

| Occupation of father | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report.. | 44 | 2.94 | 8 | 3.37 | 53 | 7.62 | 3 | 6.38 | 2 | 9.09 | 110 | 4.41 |
| None... | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .08 |
| Agriculture.. | 967 | 64.81 | 131 | 55.27 | 289 | 41.58 | 24 | 51.06 | 11 | 50.00 | 1,422 | 57.04 |
| Business | 129 | 8.64 | 25 | 10.54 | 116 | 16.69 | 6 | 12.76 | 3 | 13.63 | 279 | 11.19 |
| Artisan trades | 173 | 11.59 | 34 | 14.34 | 116 | 16.69 | 8 | 17.02 | .. | .. | 331 | 13.38 |
| Labor.. | 108 | 7.23 | 28 | 11.81 | 71 | 10.21 | 3 | 6.38 | 2 | 9.09 | 212 | 8.50 |
| Professions. | 43 | 2.88 | 10 | 4.21 | 34 | 4.89 | 3 | 6.38 | 4 | 13.63 | 94 | 3.77 |
| Civil Service | 22 | 1.47 | 1 | .42 | 13 | 1.87 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 36 | 1.44 |
| GUARDIAN (MOTHER) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Housekeeping... | 4 | .26 | .. | .. | 3 | .43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 7 | .28 |
| Business | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Totals. | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

is still smaller.[1] These facts have an obvious bearing upon the policies involved in the education of teachers and in the development of larger administrative units. Their implications will be discussed in a later section. (See Ch. VIII.)

Table 6 confirms the findings of Table 5. Almost two-thirds of the teachers of one-teacher schools report that their fathers were farmers, and this proportion steadily but significantly decreases as one passes to the larger units.

### (B) Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to Annual Income of Their Families at the Time that They Entered the Teaching Service

It will be noted that the proportions making "no report" are much higher here than in the preceding distributions. This is due in part to the unwillingness of some teachers to give information of this character, and in part to the difficulty of estimating the actual parental income when the father is not a salaried worker or a wage-earner. The questionnaire gave a careful explanation of the purpose

Table 7.—Parental Income

| Income | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report... | 869 | 58.24 | 142 | 59.91 | 494 | 71.07 | 32 | 68.08 | 13 | 59.09 | 1,550 | 62.17 |
| Under $500.. | 65 | 4.35 | 14 | 5.90 | 19 | 2.73 | 4 | 8.51 | .. | .. | 102 | 4.08 |
| $500–749 | 112 | 7.50 | 22 | 9.28 | 39 | 5.61 | 4 | 8.51 | 3 | 13.63 | 180 | 7.62 |
| 750–999 | 79 | 5.29 | 9 | 3.79 | 31 | 4.46 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 121 | 4.85 |
| 1,000–1,249 | 194 | 13.00 | 30 | 12.65 | 52 | 7.48 | 6 | 12.76 | 3 | 13.63 | 285 | 11.43 |
| 1,250–1,499 | 6 | .40 | .. | .. | 9 | 1.29 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 15 | .60 |
| 1,500–1,749 | 66 | 4.42 | 5 | 2.10 | 18 | 2.58 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 89 | 3.56 |
| 1,750–1,999 | 11 | .73 | 1 | .42 | 4 | .57 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 17 | .68 |
| 2,000–2,249 | 46 | 3.08 | 6 | 2.53 | 12 | 1.72 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 64 | 2.56 |
| 2,250–2,499 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 3 | .43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5 | .20 |
| 2,500–2,749 | 17 | 1.13 | 2 | .84 | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 21 | .84 |
| 2,750–2,999 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 3,000–3,249 | 12 | .80 | 3 | 1.26 | 4 | .57 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 19 | .76 |
| 3,250–3,499 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 3,500–3,749 | 4 | .26 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| 3,750–3,999 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 4,000 and over..... | 8 | .60 | 3 | 1.26 | 8 | 1.15 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 20 | .80 |
| Totals.... | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |
| Medians.. | $1,072 | .. | $1,025 | .. | $1,057 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |

[1] See Volume V, pp. 92 and 93.

of this particular inquiry. It further stated that the teacher's name could be omitted if desired, and that, in any case, the information would be used only in summaries in which there would be no possibility of identifying either individuals or localities. It is a tribute to the rural-school teachers of New York that so large a proportion of them—nearly forty percent—were willing to answer the question. This is a higher proportion than in any similar study with which we are familiar.

The chances of error in the answers given are, of course, all too numerous. That the medians may be taken as an approximate index of the economic status of families that supply teachers for the elementary schools is supported by the following considerations: (1) the results check in a fairly satisfactory way with those reported in other studies of elementary teachers;[1] (2) it is altogether probable that most errors are those of over-estimation rather than of under-estimation and consequently the inference that elementary teachers are drawn predominantly from families in very moderate circumstances would probably be even more strongly confirmed if the actual facts could be obtained; (3) even if the average error were in the direction of under-estimation and were as large as $300, which is hardly likely, the validity of the conclusion would not be seriously weakened.

### (C) Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to the Size of the Families from Which They Are Recruited

As in other studies of elementary teachers, the median size of the families supplying the rural-school teachers of New York is found to be somewhat larger than the average family of the State or the nation. (According to the Census of 1920, the average family of New

[1] L. D. Coffman's pioneer study in this field (*The Social Composition of the Teaching Population*, New York, 1911) estimated the median annual parental income of the women teachers in the elementary schools of the country as $836. A study of the Missouri teachers in 1915 revealed the corresponding figure for that state to be approximately $1,000. (Study of the teachers of Missouri by the Carnegie Foundation, as yet unpublished.) In 1921 the Baltimore School Survey reported the median annual parental income of white elementary teachers of Baltimore to be $1,200. When one takes into account the change in value of the dollar during the decade covered by these studies, the correspondence among their findings is convincing evidence of their general validity.

York numbers 4.26 persons, including children and adults, and the average family of the United States, 4.34 persons.)

From Table 9, it would appear at first glance that the teaching profession tends to select the older children of relatively large families, for 56.7 percent of the teachers in one-teacher schools report that they are either the oldest or the second-oldest children in their respective families. Inasmuch as approximately one-fourth of all of these teachers come from families with one or two children, however, the apparent significance of these figures seems to be questionable.

TABLE 8.—TOTAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN THE FAMILY

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report..... | 16 | 1.07 | 1 | .42 | 9 | 1.29 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 26 | 1.04 |
| 1 | 134 | 8.98 | 24 | 10.12 | 64 | 9.20 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 225 | 9.02 |
| 2 | 242 | 16.21 | 46 | 19.40 | 110 | 15.82 | 4 | 8.51 | 5 | 22.72 | 407 | 16.32 |
| 3 | 291 | 19.50 | 37 | 15.61 | 136 | 19.56 | 10 | 21.27 | 4 | 18.18 | 478 | 19.17 |
| 4 | 215 | 14.41 | 39 | 16.45 | 110 | 15.82 | 7 | 14.89 | 5 | 22.72 | 376 | 15.08 |
| 5 | 187 | 12.53 | 25 | 10.54 | 89 | 12.80 | 6 | 12.76 | .. | .. | 307 | 12.31 |
| 6 | 152 | 10.18 | 19 | 8.01 | 57 | 8.20 | 4 | 8.51 | 5 | 22.72 | 237 | 9.50 |
| 7 | 114 | 7.64 | 18 | 7.59 | 46 | 6.61 | 4 | 8.51 | 1 | 4.54 | 183 | 7.34 |
| 8 | 66 | 4.42 | 15 | 6.32 | 36 | 5.17 | 6 | 12.76 | .. | .. | 123 | 4.93 |
| 9 | 27 | 1.80 | 3 | 1.26 | 18 | 2.58 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 49 | 1.96 |
| 10 | 25 | 1.67 | 3 | 1.26 | 16 | 2.30 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 45 | 1.80 |
| 11 | 8 | .53 | 3 | 1.26 | 3 | .43 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 15 | .60 |
| 12 | 10 | .67 | 3 | 1.26 | 1 | .14 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 16 | .64 |
| 13 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 14 | 1 | .06 | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 15 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 16 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Totals..... | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |
| Medians.... | 3.26 | .. | 3.4 | .. | 3.3 | .. | 4.0 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |

TABLE 9.—TEACHER THE OLDEST OR SECOND-OLDEST CHILD

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report..... | 37 | 2.47 | 3 | 1.26 | 51 | 7.33 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 91 | 3.65 |
| Neither..... | 609 | 40.81 | 101 | 42.61 | 289 | 41.58 | 24 | 51.06 | 6 | 27.27 | 1,029 | 41.27 |
| Eldest..... | 487 | 32.64 | 84 | 35.44 | 206 | 29.64 | 11 | 23.40 | 9 | 36.36 | 797 | 31.96 |
| Second child... | 359 | 24.06 | 49 | 20.67 | 149 | 21.43 | 12 | 25.53 | 7 | 31.81 | 576 | 23.10 |
| Totals..... | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

### (D) Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to Nationality of Parents

The rural-school teachers come in a very large proportion from native-born stock. Comparable data for urban teachers in New York State are not available, but the findings in St. Louis and Baltimore suggest that urban teachers generally represent larger proportions of foreign-born parentage. In St. Louis, for example, only about fifty percent of the teachers in 1915 reported native-born mothers, and a slightly smaller proportion, native-born fathers. In Baltimore, in 1921, seventy-five percent of the white elementary teachers reported native-born parentage.

## Table 10.—Nationality of Teachers' Fathers

| Country | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 3 | .20 | 2 | .84 | 3 | .43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 88 | .32 |
| Both U. S. | 1,241 | 83.17 | 201 | 84.80 | 578 | 83.16 | 39 | 82.97 | 19 | 86.36 | 2,078 | 83.35 |
| Father U. S. | 50 | 3.35 | 4 | 1.68 | 38 | 5.46 | 2 | 4.25 | 1 | 4.54 | 95 | 3.81 |
| Canadian | 17 | 1.13 | 2 | .84 | 7 | 1.00 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 26 | 1.04 |
| English | 32 | 2.14 | 4 | 1.68 | 14 | 2.01 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 21 | 2.04 |
| Scotch | 12 | .80 | 3 | 1.26 | 3 | .43 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 20 | .80 |
| Irish | 70 | 4.69 | 12 | 5.06 | 26 | 3.74 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 110 | 4.41 |
| Dutch | 5 | .35 | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 7 | .28 |
| Swedish | 7 | .46 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 9 | .36 |
| German | 30 | 2.01 | 3 | 1.26 | 14 | 2.01 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 48 | 1.92 |
| Scotch-Irish | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 4 | .16 |
| Swiss | 4 | .26 | 1 | .42 | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 6 | .24 |
| Polish | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| East Indian | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| French | 4 | .26 | 2 | .84 | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 8 | .32 |
| Austrian | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| Danish | 1 | .13 | 2 | .84 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| Italian | 4 | .26 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| Welsh | 4 | .26 | .. | .. | 3 | .43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 7 | .28 |
| Czecho-Slovak | 1 | .06 | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| Russian | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

## Table 11.—Nationality of Teachers' Mothers

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 3 | .20 | 2 | .84 | 3 | .43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 8 | .32 |
| Both U. S. | 1,241 | 83.17 | 201 | 84.80 | 578 | 83.16 | 39 | 82.97 | 19 | 86.36 | 2,078 | 83.35 |
| Mother U. S. | 81 | 5.42 | 10 | 4.21 | 30 | 4.31 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 122 | 4.89 |
| Canadian | 23 | 1.54 | 1 | .42 | 11 | .58 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 37 | 1.48 |
| English | 19 | 1.27 | 2 | .84 | 14 | 2.01 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 35 | 1.40 |
| Scotch | 9 | .60 | 2 | .84 | 2 | .28 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 15 | .60 |
| Irish | 66 | 4.42 | 10 | 4.21 | 33 | 4.74 | 2 | 4.25 | 1 | 4.54 | 112 | 4.49 |
| Dutch | 3 | .20 | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5 | .20 |
| Swedish | 5 | .33 | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 8 | .32 |
| German | 24 | 1.60 | 3 | 1.26 | 12 | 1.72 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 41 | 1.64 |
| Scotch-Irish | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Swiss | 2 | .13 | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| Polish | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| French | 1 | .06 | 1 | .42 | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| Austrian | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| Danish | .. | .. | 2 | .84 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| Italian | 3 | .20 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| German-Swiss | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Welsh | 4 | .26 | 1 | .42 | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 7 | .28 |
| Czecho-Slovak | 1 | .06 | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| Russian | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Norwegian | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

## CHAPTER IV

# THE LENGTH OF THE SCHOOL YEAR, CONDITIONS OF LIVING, AND CONDITIONS OF WORK AMONG RURAL-SCHOOL TEACHERS

THERE is a general belief that the failure of the rural schools to attract to their service a relatively permanent and well-trained group of teachers is due to low salaries, short-term employment, poor living conditions, and social isolation. The financial aspects of rural-school teaching will be discussed in the following chapter. The present chapter will present facts relative to the other chief charges against the rural school just enumerated.

### (A) Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to Number of Months Employed Each Year

Table 12.—Number of Months Employed

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 16 | 1.07 | 3 | 1.26 | 7 | 1.00 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 26 | 1.04 |
| 1 month | .. | .. | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 1½ months | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 2 " | 4 | .26 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4.54 | 5 | .20 |
| 2½ " | 3 | .20 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 3 " | 4 | .26 | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5 | .20 |
| 3½ " | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 4 " | 6 | .40 | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 9 | .36 |
| 4½ " | 7 | .46 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 8 | .32 |
| 5 " | 15 | 1.00 | 1 | .42 | 3 | .43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 19 | .76 |
| 5½ " | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 6 " | 3 | .20 | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| 6½ " | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 7 " | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 7½ " | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 8 " | 19 | 1.27 | 1 | .42 | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 21 | .84 |
| 8½ " | 5 | .33 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 6 | .24 |
| 9 " | 1,002 | 67.15 | 98 | 41.35 | 65 | 9.35 | 2 | 4.25 | 9 | 40.90 | 1,176 | 47.17 |
| 9½ " | 98 | 6.56 | 23 | 9.70 | 15 | 2.15 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 138 | 5.53 |
| 10 " | 302 | 20.24 | 108 | 45.56 | 600 | 86.33 | 43 | 91.48 | 10 | 45.45 | 1,063 | 42.63 |
| 10½ " | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 12 " | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

The number reporting employment for less than nine months doubtless comprises those who took their positions after the beginning of the year. The proportion in any event is negligible in view of the fact that 94 percent of the teachers in one-teacher schools report a school year of nine months or more. The fact that more than one-fifth of the one-teacher schools are in session for ten months is also significant. It is clear that the short-term rural school is a thing of the past in New York State whatever conditions may prevail elsewhere.

### (B) Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to Proportion Living with Their Parents or Other Relatives

Table 13.—Maintenance of Residence

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 152 | 10.18 | 30 | 12.65 | 121 | 17.41 | 9 | 19.14 | 2 | 9.09 | 314 | 12.59 |
| Live with parents | 878 | 58.32 | 115 | 48.52 | 274 | 39.42 | 4 | 8.51 | 10 | 45.45 | 1,281 | 51.38 |
| Live with other relatives | 152 | 10.18 | 8 | 3.37 | 63 | 9.06 | 4 | 8.51 | 4 | 18.18 | 231 | 9.26 |
| Live with husband | 39 | 2.61 | 8 | 3.37 | 12 | 1.72 | 2 | 4.25 | 1 | 4.54 | 62 | 2.50 |
| Live with none of the above | 271 | 18.16 | 76 | 32.06 | 225 | 32.37 | 28 | 59.57 | 5 | 22.72 | 605 | 24.26 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

The large proportion of teachers in one-teacher schools who live with their parents is noteworthy, and clearly indicates a tendency in the rural districts to employ local teachers. The number who report that they live with their husbands is much smaller than the number of married teachers. Of the 1,492 teachers of one-teacher schools, 376, or 25.2 percent, report that they are married; the proportion in the two-teacher schools is 24 percent, and in the village elementary schools, 22 percent. These proportions are much higher than one would expect, and are doubtless to be explained, in part at least, by the unusually large number of married women who entered or returned to the work of teaching during the period of "teacher-shortage" following the war.

Whether the rural-school teachers live at home or "board," they

are likely to take some part in the housework. The following tables show the median number of hours spent each week in housework by those who reported on this item:

TABLE 14.—MEDIAN NUMBER OF HOURS SPENT IN HOUSEWORK

| | (*a*) by teachers living at home | (*b*) by teachers not living at home |
|---|---|---|
| Teachers of one-teacher schools | 18.76 (612 reporting) | 10.32 (513 reporting) |
| Teachers of two-teacher schools | 19.44 (88 reporting) | 9.00 (57 reporting) |
| Teachers of village elementary schools | 17.00 (258 reporting) | 11.25 (109 reporting) |

## (C) DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL-SCHOOL TEACHERS AS TO DISTANCE FROM HOME OR BOARDING-PLACE TO SCHOOL

TABLE 15.—DISTANCE FROM HOME OR BOARDING-PLACE TO SCHOOL

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 157 | 10.52 | 35 | 14.76 | 171 | 24.60 | 17 | 36.17 | 6 | 27.27 | 386 | 16.48 |
| 0–¼ mile | 247 | 16.55 | 54 | 22.78 | 223 | 32.08 | 8 | 17.02 | 5 | 22.72 | 537 | 21.53 |
| ¼ " | 243 | 16.38 | 30 | 12.65 | 90 | 12.94 | 5 | 10.63 | 2 | 9.09 | 370 | 14.84 |
| ½ " | 133 | 8.91 | 17 | 7.17 | 48 | 6.90 | 3 | 6.38 | 2 | 9.09 | 203 | 8.14 |
| ¾ " | 89 | 5.96 | 5 | 2.10 | 15 | 2.15 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 112 | 4.49 |
| 1 " | 150 | 10.05 | 20 | 8.43 | 39 | 5.61 | 4 | 8.51 | 2 | 9.09 | 215 | 8.62 |
| 1¼ miles | 24 | 1.60 | 3 | 1.26 | 7 | 1.00 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 35 | 1.40 |
| 1½ " | 68 | 4.55 | 13 | 5.48 | 17 | 2.44 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 48 | 1.92 |
| 2 " | 64 | 4.28 | .. | .. | 11 | 1.58 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 77 | 3.08 |
| 2½ " | 102 | 6.83 | 7 | 2.95 | 12 | 1.72 | .. | .. | 2 | 9.09 | 123 | 4.93 |
| 3 " | 50 | 3.50 | .. | .. | 11 | 1.58 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 62 | 2.48 |
| 3½ " | 49 | 3.28 | 6 | 2.53 | 16 | 2.30 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 71 | 2.84 |
| 4 " | 28 | 1.87 | 16 | 6.75 | 3 | .43 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 49 | 1.96 |
| 4½ " | 17 | 1.13 | .. | .. | 4 | .57 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 21 | .84 |
| 5 " | 10 | .67 | 6 | 2.53 | 6 | .86 | 2 | 4.25 | 1 | 4.54 | 25 | 1.00 |
| 6 " | 12 | .80 | .. | .. | 3 | .43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 15 | .60 |
| 7 " | 10 | .67 | 9 | 3.79 | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 21 | .84 |
| 8 " | 9 | .60 | 5 | 2.10 | 5 | .71 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 20 | .80 |
| 9 " | 9 | .60 | 4 | 1.68 | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 15 | .60 |
| 10 " | 5 | .33 | 3 | 1.26 | 3 | .43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 11 | .44 |
| 11 " | 5 | .33 | 2 | .84 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 7 | .28 |
| 12 " | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| 13 " | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 14 " | 3 | .20 | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| 15 " | 1 | .06 | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 16 " | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 17 " | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 18 " | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 19 " | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 20 " | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 21 " | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

Medians 0.62 mile 0.88 mile 0.36 mile

A majority of the teachers in each of the three groups of schools live within walking distance of their school buildings. Of the 743 teachers of one-teacher schools who live more than a half-mile from their buildings, 413 cover the distance on foot; 108 in automobile; 103 by carriage; 48 by trolley; 21 by train; 18 by bicycle; and 17 on horseback. For about one-half of the rural-school teachers in one-teacher and two-teacher schools, the problem of transportation to and from the day's work is apparently fairly serious, and this fact may be thought of as constituting one of the handicaps of the rural-school service.

## (D) Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to Living Conditions

Table 16.—Proportion of Teachers Having Private Room

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 480 | 32.17 | 77 | 32.48 | 272 | 39.13 | 25 | 53.19 | 8 | 36.36 | 862 | 34.57 |
| Room alone | 920 | 61.66 | 144 | 60.75 | 344 | 49.49 | 20 | 42.55 | 14 | 63.63 | 1,442 | 57.84 |
| Room shared | 92 | 6.16 | 16 | 6.75 | 79 | 11.36 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 189 | 7.58 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

Table 17.—Heating of Rooms in Winter

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 391 | 26.20 | 58 | 24.47 | 230 | 33.09 | 20 | 42.55 | 6 | 27.27 | 705 | 28.27 |
| Yes | 822 | 55.02 | 139 | 58.64 | 390 | 56.11 | 27 | 57.44 | 11 | 50.00 | 1,389 | 55.71 |
| No | 279 | 18.69 | 40 | 16.87 | 75 | 10.79 | .. | .. | 5 | 22.72 | 399 | 16.00 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

While there can be no doubt that difficult or unsatisfactory living conditions still form a significant handicap to the rural-school service, there is evidence in the above distributions that this handicap

## Table 18.—Living Room Available to Receive Callers

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 370 | 24.79 | 65 | 24.42 | 236 | 33.95 | 20 | 42.55 | 8 | 36.36 | 699 | 28.03 |
| Yes | 1,084 | 72.65 | 168 | 70.88 | 441 | 63.45 | 27 | 57.44 | 13 | 59.09 | 1,733 | 69.32 |
| No | 38 | 2.54 | 4 | 1.68 | 18 | 2.58 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 61 | 2.44 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

## Table 19.—Facilities for Going to and from Town

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 435 | 29.15 | 75 | 31.64 | 317 | 45.51 | 19 | 40.42 | 10 | 45.45 | 856 | 32.33 |
| None | 81 | 5.42 | 11 | 4.64 | 9 | 1.29 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 103 | 4.13 |
| Car or Jitney | 451 | 30.22 | 71 | 29.95 | 61 | 8.77 | 8 | 17.02 | 5 | 22.72 | 596 | 23.90 |
| Walk | 129 | 8.64 | 20 | 8.43 | 63 | 9.06 | 5 | 10.63 | 1 | 4.54 | 218 | 8.75 |
| Horse | 176 | 11.79 | 7 | 2.95 | 17 | 2.44 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 201 | 8.06 |
| Trolley | 55 | 3.68 | 11 | 4.64 | 51 | 7.33 | 3 | 6.38 | 1 | 4.54 | 121 | 4.85 |
| Train | 128 | 8.57 | 40 | 16.87 | 160 | 23.02 | 11 | 23.40 | 3 | 13.63 | 342 | 13.71 |
| Bicycle | 5 | .33 | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 6 | .24 |
| Bus | 25 | 1.67 | .. | .. | 9 | 1.29 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 34 | 1.36 |
| Stage | 6 | .40 | .. | .. | 6 | .86 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 12 | .48 |
| Milk Truck | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Boat | .. | .. | 1 | .42 | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

## Table 20.—Indoor and Outdoor Toilets in Homes or Boarding-places

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 158 | 10.58 | 21 | 8.86 | 135 | 19.42 | 7 | 14.89 | 6 | 27.27 | 327 | 13.11 |
| Outdoor | 926 | 62.06 | 131 | 55.27 | 189 | 27.19 | 12 | 25.53 | 5 | 22.72 | 1,263 | 50.66 |
| Indoor | 408 | 27.34 | 85 | 35.86 | 371 | 53.37 | 28 | 59.57 | 11 | 50.00 | 903 | 36.22 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

is being reduced with the improvement of open-country homes and increased facilities for transportation. A preponderant majority of teachers in the three important groups have individual rooms. In the one-teacher group, the proportion of rooms that are unheated in winter is still high (18.79%) as compared with the village group (10.79%), but it is altogether probable that a similar study ten years ago would have revealed a much wider difference. The fact that more than one-fourth of the teachers of one-teacher schools live in houses that are equipped with indoor toilets is indicative of another important improvement in the conditions of open-country living, although the differences between the open-country homes and those of the villages are still considerable in this respect.

TABLE 21.—PROPORTION OF TEACHERS WHO SPEND WEEK-ENDS AT BOARDING-PLACE

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 722 | 48.39 | 114 | 48.10 | 378 | 54.38 | 30 | 63.82 | 12 | 54.54 | 1,256 | 50.37 |
| All time | 207 | 13.87 | 50 | 21.09 | 133 | 19.13 | 7 | 14.89 | 4 | 18.18 | 401 | 16.08 |
| About half the time | 94 | 6.30 | 17 | 7.17 | 42 | 6.04 | 6 | 12.76 | 2 | 9.09 | 161 | 6.45 |
| Very seldom | 168 | 11.26 | 24 | 10.12 | 34 | 4.89 | 2 | 4.25 | 3 | 13.63 | 231 | 9.26 |
| Not at all | 267 | 17.89 | 32 | 13.50 | 53 | 7.62 | 2 | 4.25 | 1 | 4.54 | 355 | 14.23 |
| Almost all the time | 34 | 2.27 | .. | .. | 55 | 7.91 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 89 | 3.56 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

Table 21 does not furnish a very reliable index of the proportion of teachers who remain in their districts over the week-ends. It is clear, however, that the proportion is smaller in the one-teacher group than in the two-teacher and village groups.

The open-country teacher is much more likely to live with a large family than is the village teacher. The actual distributions in respect to this item are not sufficiently significant to be reproduced here.

## (E) Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to Conditions of Work

Table 22.—Proportion of Teachers Who Do the Janitor's Work of the School

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 18 | 1.20 | 9 | 3.79 | 529 | 74.67 | 29 | 61.70 | 19 | 86.36 | 604 | 24.22 |
| Yes | 894 | 59.91 | 58 | 24.47 | 44 | 6.33 | 5 | 10.63 | 1 | 4.54 | 1,002 | 40.19 |
| No | 580 | 38.87 | 170 | 71.72 | 122 | 17.55 | 13 | 27.65 | 2 | 9.09 | 887 | 35.57 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

Table 23.—Frequency with Which the Schoolroom is Swept

| | One-teacher schools | | Two-teacher schools | | Village elementary | | Village principals | Unclassified | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 45 | | 13 | | 360 | | 12 | 17 | 447 |
| Never | 2 | | .. | | .. | | .. | .. | .. |
| 1 a week | 76 | | 25 | | 23 | | .. | .. | 124 |
| 2 " " | 261 | | 51 | | 58 | | 3 | 2 | 375 |
| 3 " " | 213 | | 41 | | 28 | | 2 | .. | 284 |
| 4 " " | 26 | | 1 | | 2 | | 1 | .. | 30 |
| 5 " " | 840 | | 102 | | 172 | | .. | .. | 1,114 |
| 10 " " | 27 | 59.9%[1] | 2 | 46.4%[1] | 51 | 66.5%[1] | 29 | 3 | 112 |
| 15 " " | 1 | | .. | | .. | | .. | .. | 1 |
| Every 2 weeks | .. | | 2 | | .. | | .. | .. | 2 |
| " 3 " | 1 | | .. | | .. | | .. | .. | 1 |
| 3 a month | .. | | .. | | 1 | | .. | .. | 1 |
| Totals | 1,492 | | 237 | | 695 | | 47 | 22 | 2,493 |

[1] Of those replying.

In six cases out of ten, the teacher of the one-teacher school does the janitor's work. This proportion is reduced by more than one-half in the two-teacher schools and becomes practically negligible in the village schools. The placing of this duty upon the shoulders of

TABLE 24.—FREQUENCY WITH WHICH THE SCHOOLROOM IS SCRUBBED

| | One-teacher schools | | Two-teacher schools | | Village elementary | | Village principals | Unclassified | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 280 | | 53 | | 513 | | 23 | 19 | 888 |
| Never | 67 | | 26 | | 17 | | 2 | .. | 112 |
| Twice a week | 2 | | .. | | .. | | .. | .. | 2 |
| Every ¼ month | 17 | 8.0%[1] | 7 | 6.5%[1] | 28 | 18.1%[1] | 2 | .. | 54 |
| " ½ " | 4 | | .. | | .. | | .. | .. | 4 |
| " 1 " | 74 | | 5 | | 5 | | 1 | .. | 85 |
| " 1½ mos. | 6 | | .. | | .. | | .. | .. | 6 |
| " 2 " | 33 | | 7 | | .. | | .. | .. | 40 |
| " 3 " | 76 | | 8 | | 11 | | 2 | .. | 97 |
| " 4 " | 306 | | 37 | | 32 | | 1 | .. | 376 |
| " 5 " | 1 | | .. | | .. | | .. | .. | 1 |
| " 6 " | 5 | | .. | | .. | | .. | .. | 5 |
| Once a year | 590 | | 94 | | 86 | | 7 | 3 | 780 |
| Oiled | 31 | | .. | | 3 | | 9 | .. | 43 |
| Totals | 1,492 | | 237 | | 695 | | 47 | 22 | 2,493 |

[1] Of those replying.

TABLE 25.—FREQUENCY WITH WHICH OUTHOUSES ARE SCRUBBED

| | One-teacher schools | | Two-teacher schools | | Village elementary | | Village principals | Unclassified | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 487 | | 102 | | 578 | | 36 | 19 | 1,222 |
| Never | 115 | | 30 | | 19 | | 2 | .. | 116 |
| Every day | .. | | .. | | 1 | | .. | .. | 1 |
| Every ¼ month | 20 | 13.5%[1] | 8 | 9.6%[1] | 26 | 28.2%[1] | 4 | .. | 58 |
| " ½ " | 3 | | 2 | | .. | | .. | .. | 5 |
| " 1 " | 113 | | 3 | | 6 | | 2 | .. | 124 |
| " 2 mos. | 19 | | .. | | 3 | | .. | .. | 22 |
| " 3 " ... | 48 | | 8 | | 3 | | .. | .. | 59 |
| " 4 " ... | 175 | | 16 | | 7 | | .. | 3 | 201 |
| " year | 475 | | 68 | | 52 | | 3 | .. | 598 |
| " 3 years | 1 | | .. | | .. | | .. | .. | 1 |
| Have no outbuildings | 36 | | .. | | .. | | .. | .. | 36 |
| Totals | 1,492 | | 237 | | 695 | | 47 | 22 | 2,493 |

[1] Of those replying.

a teacher who is likely to be overworked in any event may be looked upon as one of the serious handicaps of the rural-school service,—the more serious in that it is usually remediable at slight expense. The relative infrequency of scrubbing the schoolroom floors and outhouses in the one-teacher and two teacher schools as compared with the village schools is probably due to the fact that in the former the teachers must do the janitor's work and quite naturally neglect the more arduous and disagreeable phases of this work, important as these phases are.

TABLE 26.—PART TAKEN IN PLAY AT RECESS AND NOON INTERMISSION

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 27 | 1.80 | 10 | 4.21 | 386 | 55.53 | 13 | 27.65 | 16 | 72.72 | 452 | 18.13 |
| No part taken | 29 | 1.94 | 3 | 1.26 | 47 | 6.76 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 80 | 3.20 |
| Daily (most of time) | 1,062 | 71.17 | 115 | 48.52 | 176 | 25.32 | 7 | 14.89 | 2 | 9.09 | 1,362 | 54.65 |
| Partly | 374 | 25.06 | 109 | 45.99 | 86 | 12.37 | 27 | 57.44 | 3 | 13.63 | 599 | 24.03 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

TABLE 27.—HOT LUNCHES AT THE SCHOOLHOUSE

| | One-teacher schools | Two-teacher schools | Village elementary | Village principals | Unclassified | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 25 | 9 | 336 | 11 | 15 | 396 |
| Yes | 373—25.3%[1] | 47—20.6%[1] | 50—13.8%[1] | 3 | 2 | 475 |
| Occasionally | 113 | .. | 2 | .. | .. | 115 |
| No | 981 | 181 | 307 | 33 | 5 | 1,507 |
| Totals | 1,492 | 237 | 695 | 47 | 22 | 2,493 |

[1] Of those replying.

Table 26 indicates that the teachers of the one-teacher schools as a group feel a distinct responsibility for supervising their pupils at

recess and noontime. The contrast with the two-teacher and village groups is marked here. Table 27 suggests that the "hot lunch" is gaining headway in the one-teacher schools, although the proportion of schools having facilities for preparing hot lunches is still low.

### (F) Why Teachers Change from One Rural School to Another and from Open-country Schools to Village Schools

Among the questions asked of the rural-school teachers were these: "If you are a rural teacher and have taught in several schools, what have been your chief reasons for changing schools?" "If you are now a village teacher and were formerly a rural-school teacher, what were your chief reasons for leaving rural schools and going to town to teach?" It was hoped that through the answers to these questions some valuable information could be obtained as to the principal handicaps of open-country service.

Nine hundred thirty-seven teachers of one-teacher schools and 151 teachers of two-teacher schools answered the first question relative to the reasons that impelled them to change from one school to another. In the order of frequency of mention, these reasons were as follows:

Table 28.—Why Teachers Change from One Open-country School to Another

| *Teachers of one-teacher schools* | | *Teachers of two-teacher schools* | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Better salary | 315 | Better salary | 91 |
| Nearer home | 300 | Nearer home | 49 |
| Better school | 107 | Better school | 26 |
| "Desired a change" | 87 | "Desired a change" | 13 |
| Better transportation | 47 | More congenial work | 11 |
| Better board | 37 | Better board | 8 |
| Better social life | 37 | Shorter distance to school | 7 |
| Communities expect frequent change | 31 | Better social life | 6 |
| Shorter distance to school | 27 | Better transportation | 5 |
| More congenial work | 22 | | |
| Conditions more satisfactory | 19 | | |

Other reasons were mentioned, but with insignificant frequency. "Better salaries," as one would expect, ranks first among the reasons determining a change of schools, and the opportunity to teach nearer home stands next. It is extremely significant, however, that

the opportunity of serving in a "better school" ranks so high as a motive for change. Significant, too, is the fact that some districts expect teachers to remain but a short time,—twelve of the teachers in the one-teacher schools, indeed, report that three years' service is the maximum in their respective districts, and thirty-one report that their communities "expect changes to be frequent."

TABLE 29.—WHY TEACHERS CHANGE FROM OPEN-COUNTRY TO VILLAGE SCHOOLS

| | |
|---|---|
| Total number of village teachers replying | 493 |
| Number reporting no change | 52 |
| Reasons for change in order of frequency of mention: | |
| "Fewer grades" | 99 |
| Better salary | 93 |
| Better living conditions | 80 |
| Better educational advantages | 55 |
| Better school | 28 |
| Nearer home | 24 |
| Better social opportunities | 19 |

Here with a relatively more mature and better trained group of teachers, the professional motive comes out even more strongly as contrasted with financial and personal motives. Incomplete as they are these findings, we believe, have a large significance. The *mature and experienced* teachers in our public schools as a group are *professionally minded and have sincere professional ambitions*. They wish to grow in their work, and, while they are not unmindful of the wages that they receive or of the conditions under which they must live, these factors do not by any means overshadow all others in determining their motives.

## CHAPTER V

# SALARIES, OTHER EARNINGS, LIVING EXPENSES, AND SAVINGS OF RURAL-SCHOOL TEACHERS

IT IS clear from the facts presented in Chapter IV that, while low salaries do not constitute the only handicap of the rural-school service, they must be recognized as an important factor in making the service relatively unattractive as a permanent calling. The present chapter will set forth the principal findings of the survey with respect not only to salaries, but also to other earnings of teachers, their necessary living expenses, the extent to which they aid in the support of other persons, and the margins that are left for investment whether in insurance, savings, or further education.

### (A) Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to Annual Salary

The salaries for 1920–21 were, of course, considerably higher than during any preceding year, both because of local increases and because of the relatively generous additions made from State funds under the provisions of the Lockwood-Donohue act. The medians for the teachers of one-teacher and two-teacher schools, however, are still lower than in many other states. The *Journal of the National Education Association* for May, 1922, presented authoritative data showing the medians for all states for the year 1921–22. (Table 31 above gives the New York medians for the preceding year.) California, Arizona, Washington, New Mexico, New Jersey, Nevada, Montana, Connecticut, Colorado, Ohio, and Oregon are shown to have a higher median salary for one-teacher schools than New York; thus New York is surpassed in this respect by three of the six contiguous states as well as by the states of the Pacific Coast and Rocky Mountain region. New York's median for two-teacher schools is surpassed by fourteen states, including Connecticut, New Jersey, Ohio, Wisconsin, and North Dakota, as well as the far-western states. New York's median for country schools of three or more teachers, however, was surpassed in 1921–22 by only four states—Arizona, California, Washington, and New Jersey.

TABLE 30.—SALARIES OF RURAL-SCHOOL TEACHERS

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 17 | 1.13 | 1 | .42 | 9 | 1.29 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 27 | 1.08 |
| Below $500 | 24 | 1.60 | 2 | .84 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 26 | 1.04 |
| 500–549 | 4 | .26 | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 6 | .24 |
| 550–599 | .. | .. | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 600–649 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 650–699 | 6 | .40 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 7 | .28 |
| 700–749 | 430 | 28.82 | 26 | 10.97 | 14 | 2.01 | .. | .. | 3 | 13.63 | 473 | 18.97 |
| 750–799 | 196 | 13.13 | 15 | 6.32 | 11 | 1.58 | .. | .. | 2 | 9.09 | 224 | 8.98 |
| 800–849 | 250 | 16.75 | 34 | 14.34 | 79 | 11.36 | 2 | 4.25 | 3 | 13.63 | 368 | 14.76 |
| 850–899 | 97 | 6.50 | 10 | 4.21 | 56 | 8.05 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 164 | 6.57 |
| 900–949 | 281 | 18.83 | 47 | 19.83 | 141 | 20.28 | 4 | 8.51 | 8 | 36.36 | 481 | 19.29 |
| 950–999 | 56 | 3.75 | 21 | 8.86 | 56 | 8.05 | 1 | 2.12 | 2 | 9.09 | 136 | 5.45 |
| 1,000–1,049 | 63 | 4.22 | 27 | 11.39 | 113 | 16.25 | 3 | 6.38 | 2 | 9.09 | 208 | 8.34 |
| 1,050–1,099 | 30 | 2.01 | 11 | 4.64 | 41 | 15.89 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 83 | 3.32 |
| 1,100–1,149 | 13 | .87 | 15 | 6.32 | 53 | 7.62 | 5 | 10.63 | .. | .. | 86 | 3.44 |
| 1,150–1,199 | 3 | .20 | 5 | 2.10 | 19 | 2.73 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 30 | 1.20 |
| 1,200–1,249 | 13 | .87 | 8 | 3.37 | 59 | 8.48 | 5 | 10.63 | 2 | 9.09 | 87 | 3.48 |
| 1,250–1,299 | 5 | .33 | 3 | 1.26 | 8 | 1.15 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 17 | .68 |
| 1,300–1,349 | 1 | .06 | 3 | 1.26 | 12 | 1.72 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 18 | .72 |
| 1,350–1,399 | .. | .. | 5 | 2.10 | 4 | .57 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 11 | .44 |
| 1,400–1,449 | 1 | .06 | 2 | .84 | 8 | 1.15 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 13 | .52 |
| 1,450–1,499 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 1,500–1,549 | .. | .. | 1 | .42 | 4 | .57 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 7 | .28 |
| 1,550–1,599 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 1,600–1,649 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4 | 8.51 | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| 1,650–1,699 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 1,700–1,749 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 1,750–1,799 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 1,800–1,849 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| 1,850–1,899 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 1,900–1,949 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 1,950–1,999 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 2,000 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 2,500 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

TABLE 31.—MEDIANS AND RANGES OF RURAL-SCHOOL SALARIES (SUMMARY OF TABLE 30)

| | Median salary | Range middle 50 percent | Percent $650 and below | Highest reported |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Teachers of one-teacher schools | $837 | $700–$900 | 2.40 | $1,400 |
| Teachers of two-teacher schools | 915 | 800–1,000 | 1.26 | 1,500 |
| Village elementary teachers | 935 | 900–1,100 | 0.42 | 1,800 |
| Village principals | 1,190 | 1,100–1,550 | .. | 2,500 |
| 203 teachers, village high schools | 1,200 | 1,100–1,300 | .. | 2,500 |

Comparisons of rural conditions in New York with rural conditions in other states is probably not so important to the people of the state as is the comparison of rural and urban conditions within the state itself. From the same table in the *Journal of the National Education Association* we make the following comparisons for 1921–22:

| Elementary teachers | Median salary |
|---|---|
| New York one-teacher schools | $869 |
| New York two-teacher schools | 989 |
| N. Y. cities, 2,500–10,000 population | 1,220 |
| N. Y. " 10,000–25,000 " | 1,339 |
| N. Y. " 25,000–100,000 " | 1,335 |
| N. Y. " over 100,000 " | 2,600 (estimate) |

## (B) Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to Sources and Amount of Income Other than Salary

Table 32.—Outside Earnings

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 399 | 26.74 | 98 | 41.35 | 316 | 45.18 | 10 | 21.27 | 12 | 54.54 | 835 | 33.49 |
| None | 717 | 48.05 | 85 | 35.86 | 238 | 34.24 | 10 | 21.27 | 8 | 36.36 | 1,058 | 42.43 |
| $1–49 | 112 | 7.50 | 16 | 6.75 | 42 | 6.04 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 171 | 6.85 |
| 50–99 | 97 | 6.50 | 17 | 7.17 | 42 | 6.04 | 5 | 10.63 | .. | .. | 161 | 6.45 |
| 100–149 | 64 | 4.28 | 8 | 3.37 | 31 | 4.46 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 105 | 4.21 |
| 150–199 | 22 | 1.47 | 5 | 2.10 | 7 | 1.00 | 8 | 17.02 | .. | .. | 42 | 1.68 |
| 200–249 | 31 | 2.07 | 5 | 2.10 | 5 | .71 | 4 | 8.51 | 2 | 9.09 | 47 | 1.88 |
| 250–299 | 7 | .46 | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 9 | .36 |
| 300–349 | 13 | .87 | .. | .. | 5 | .71 | 5 | 10.63 | .. | .. | 23 | .92 |
| 350–399 | 4 | .26 | 1 | .42 | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 7 | .28 |
| 400–449 | 6 | .40 | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 8 | .32 |
| 450–499 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 500–549 | 6 | .40 | 1 | .42 | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 8 | .32 |
| 550–599 | 4 | .26 | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5 | .20 |
| 600–649 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 650–699 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 700–749 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 750–799 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 800–849 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 850–899 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 900–949 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 950–999 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 1,000–1,049 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 1,050–1,099 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 1,100–1,149 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 1,150–1,199 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 1,200–1,249 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 1,250–1,299 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 1,300–1,349 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 1,350–1,399 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 1,400–1,449 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 1,450–1,499 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 1,500 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

Median outside earnings of those reporting earnings

| | |
|---|---|
| One-teacher schools | $90.72 |
| Two-teacher schools | 82.35 |
| Village elementary teachers | 85.70 |
| Village principals | 137.50 |

Except probably for small amounts paid to the teachers in some districts for doing the janitor's work, the earnings other than salary come very largely through employment during the summer vacation. Relatively few of the teachers, indeed, are idle during the summer. Table 33 lists the types of summer occupation reported by 1,757 of the 2,493 teachers from whom questionnaires were received.

TABLE 33.—EMPLOYMENT DURING THE SUMMER

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 91 | 6.09 | 14 | 5.90 | 71 | 10.21 | 2 | 4.25 | 7 | 31.81 | 185 | 7.42 |
| Nothing | 242 | 16.21 | 40 | 16.87 | 258 | 37.12 | 6 | 12.76 | 5 | 22.72 | 551 | 22.10 |
| Work (unsp.) | 86 | 5.76 | 15 | 6.32 | 44 | 6.33 | 6 | 12.76 | 1 | 4.54 | 152 | 6.09 |
| Housework | 568 | 38.06 | 89 | 37.55 | 172 | 24.74 | 9 | 19.14 | 2 | 9.09 | 840 | 33.69 |
| Summer school | 219 | 14.67 | 40 | 16.87 | 82 | 11.79 | 7 | 14.89 | 3 | 13.63 | 351 | 14.07 |
| House and light farm | 79 | 5.29 | 8 | 3.37 | 18 | 2.58 | 9 | 19.14 | .. | .. | 114 | 4.57 |
| Help on farm | 78 | 5.22 | 11 | 4.64 | 10 | 1.43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 99 | 3.97 |
| Summer resort work | 36 | 2.41 | 8 | 3.37 | 8 | 1.15 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 53 | 2.12 |
| Give or take music | 10 | .67 | 1 | .42 | 3 | .43 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 15 | .60 |
| Dressmaking | 12 | .80 | .. | .. | 6 | .86 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 19 | .76 |
| Clerking | 51 | 3.41 | 6 | 2.53 | 20 | 2.87 | 5 | 10.63 | 1 | 4.54 | 83 | 2.52 |
| Community work | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Tutor or governess | 8 | .53 | .. | .. | 3 | .43 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 13 | .52 |
| Cook | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Hospital attendant | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Factory | 3 | .20 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| Nursing | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| Waitress | 2 | .13 | 5 | 2.10 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 7 | .28 |
| Telephone operator | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Movies | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Preaching | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

Not all of the employment reported in Table 33 adds to the teacher's income. Practically one-seventh of all of the teachers attended summer school in 1920, and the relatively large proportion who were engaged in housework probably worked as a rule in their own homes. It may be concluded that approximately one-fifth of the rural-school teachers earn some money in addition to their re-

muneration for teaching. This proportion is not large nor are the amounts earned very significant (see Table 32). With the increasing tendency upon the part of all teachers to spend a part of the summer vacation in study, this small proportion of those earning money by summer employment will be still further decreased.

Relatively few teachers have independent sources of income as the following table indicates:

TABLE 34.—INCOME FROM SOURCES OTHER THAN EMPLOYMENT

| | One-teacher schools | Two-teacher schools | Village elementary | Village principals |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Percent making no report | 67.89 | 63.29 | 64.45 | 40.42 |
| Percent reporting no independent income | 12.19 | 9.70 | 10.35 | 25.53 |
| Percent reporting independent income | 19.92 | 27.01 | 25.20 | 34.05 |
| Median independent income of those reporting | $23.33 | $21.25 | $28.07 | $75.00 |

The increase in the proportion reporting incomes as one passes from the younger to the older groups and the general increase in amount of income indicate that the independent income, wherever it exists, is likely to represent interest on savings. It is significant of the unsatisfactory financial status of teaching that among the village principals, the median of whose ages is forty-two, one-fourth report no income whatsoever in addition to their annual earnings, and that the median independent income of those who report such is only seventy-five dollars. The maximum in this group indeed (reported by only one principal) is but $400. Relatively few teachers in the other groups have independent incomes sufficient to support them. While ten percent of the village teachers, for example, are 48 years of age or older, only 3.4 percent report independent incomes in excess of $250, while the highest reported in this group is $600. Of the 2,493 teachers comprising all of the groups, seven have independent incomes of $600, and one reports $1,000, which is the high-water mark. And yet 144 of these teachers have

reached or passed the age of fifty, and seventy-five have been teaching thirty years or more.

### (C) Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to Cost of Board, Lodging, Laundry, and Transportation

Table 35.—Total Living Expenses a Week[1]

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 736 | 49.32 | 119 | 50.21 | 349 | 58.21 | 18 | 38.29 | 12 | 54.54 | 1,234 | 49.49 |
| $1.00 | 6 | .40 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 6 | .24 |
| 2.00 | 5 | .33 | 1 | .42 | 3 | .43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 9 | .36 |
| 3.00 | 31 | 2.07 | 5 | 2.10 | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | 2 | 9.09 | 39 | 1.56 |
| 4.00 | 58 | 3.88 | 1 | .42 | 5 | .71 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 64 | 2.56 |
| 5.00 | 145 | 9.71 | 5 | 2.10 | 4 | .57 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 156 | 6.25 |
| 6.00 | 108 | 7.23 | 12 | 5.06 | 15 | 2.15 | .. | .. | 2 | 9.09 | 137 | 5.49 |
| 7.00 | 134 | 8.98 | 9 | 3.79 | 22 | 3.16 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 165 | 6.61 |
| 8.00 | 62 | 4.15 | 14 | 5.90 | 25 | 3.59 | 2 | 4.25 | 1 | 4.54 | 104 | 4.17 |
| 9.00 | 34 | 2.27 | 11 | 4.64 | 30 | 4.31 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 76 | 3.04 |
| 10.00 | 75 | 5.02 | 9 | 3.79 | 36 | 5.17 | 6 | 12.76 | 3 | 13.63 | 129 | 5.17 |
| 11.00 | 22 | 1.47 | 29 | 12.23 | 65 | 9.35 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 118 | 4.73 |
| 12.00 | 16 | 1.07 | 2 | .84 | 27 | 3.88 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 48 | 1.92 |
| 13.00 | 5 | .33 | 6 | 2.53 | 53 | 7.62 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 65 | 2.60 |
| 14.00 | 3 | .20 | .. | .. | 15 | 2.15 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 19 | .76 |
| 15.00 | 26 | 1.74 | 1 | .42 | 7 | 1.00 | 4 | 8.51 | .. | .. | 38 | 1.52 |
| 16.00 | 5 | .33 | 5 | 2.10 | 20 | 2.87 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 32 | 1.28 |
| 17.00 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 18.00 | 5 | .33 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 6 | .24 |
| 19.00 | .. | .. | 2 | .84 | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 20.00 | 7 | .46 | 4 | 1.68 | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 12 | .48 |
| 21.00 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | 5 | .71 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 6 | .24 |
| 22.00 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| 23.00 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 24.00 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 25.00 | 4 | .26 | 1 | .42 | 1 | .14 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 9 | .36 |
| 26.00 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 27.00 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 28.00 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 29.00 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 30 and over | 1 | .06 | 1 | .42 | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |
| Medians | $6.19 | | $9.11 | | $10.60 | | $13.00 | | | | | |

[1] Including board, lodging, laundry, and transportation.

By multiplying the medians of Table 35 by those of Table 36 it is possible to estimate the necessary annual living expenses and to make comparisons for the different groups.

It will be noted that the open-country teacher serving in the one-teacher school has a median living-cost less than half that of the

TABLE 36.—NUMBER OF WEEKS FOR WHICH BOARD IS PAID

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 609 | 40.81 | 83 | 35.02 | 262 | 37.70 | 14 | 29.78 | 9 | 40.90 | 977 | 39.18 |
| 1–24 weeks | 39 | 2.61 | 7 | 2.95 | 4 | .57 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 50 | 2.00 |
| 25 " | 3 | .20 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 26 " | 5 | .33 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5 | .20 |
| 27 " | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 28 " | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 29 " | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 30 " | 3 | .20 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| 31 " | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 32 " | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 33 " | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 34 " | 3 | .20 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| 35 " | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 36 " | 166 | 11.12 | 24 | 10.12 | 5 | .71 | 1 | 2.12 | 2 | 9.09 | 198 | 7.94 |
| 37 " | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 5 | .71 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 7 | .28 |
| 38 " | 13 | .87 | 9 | 3.79 | 18 | 2.58 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 40 | 1.60 |
| 39 " | 112 | 7.50 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 114 | 4.57 |
| 40 " | 71 | 4.75 | 28 | 11.81 | 117 | 16.83 | 5 | 10.63 | 1 | 4.54 | 222 | 8.90 |
| 41 " | 3 | .20 | .. | .. | 39 | 5.61 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 42 | 1.68 |
| 42 " | 11 | .73 | 2 | .84 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 13 | .52 |
| 43 " | 46 | 3.08 | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 48 | 1.92 |
| 44 " | 5 | .33 | 7 | 2.95 | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 14 | .56 |
| 45 " | 3 | .20 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| 46 " | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .04 |
| 47 " | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 48 " | 5 | .33 | .. | .. | 4 | .57 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 9 | .36 |
| 49 " | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 50 " | 3 | .20 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 5 | .20 |
| 51 " | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 52 " | 383 | 25.67 | 77 | 32.48 | 231 | 33.23 | 24 | 51.06 | 10 | 45.45 | 725 | 29.08 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |
| Medians | 42.1 | | 44.0 | | 52.0 | | 52.0 | | | | | |

TABLE 37.—ESTIMATED MEDIAN ANNUAL COST OF BOARD, LODGING, LAUNDRY, AND TRANSPORTATION

| | |
|---|---|
| Teachers of one-teacher schools | $260.60 |
| Teachers of two-teacher schools | 400.84 |
| Village elementary teachers | 551.20 |
| Village principals | 676.00 |

village teacher. This is due only in part, however, to the lower actual cost of board and room in the country. Living usually with her parents for at least part of the summer vacation, she is able to reduce her total expenses significantly below those of the village teacher or even of the teacher in the two-teacher school, both of whom are much more likely to depend entirely upon their earnings for support during the entire year. As will be seen a little later,

the teacher of the one-teacher school is likewise able to save a larger amount from her smaller salary than are the teachers of the other groups from their larger salaries.

### (D) Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to their Responsibility for the Support of Dependents

Table 38.—Support of Total Dependents

| | Percent reporting total support of | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | One adult | Two or more adults | One child | Two or more children |
| Teachers of one-teacher schools | 4.9 | 1.4 | 2.74 | 2.90 |
| Teachers of two-teacher schools | 6.3 | 1.3 | 2.95 | 1.66 |
| Village elementary teachers | 4.9 | 1.3 | 2.73 | 1.14 |
| Village principals | 29.78 | 12.76 | 19.14 | 21.26 |

Table 39.—Support of Partial Dependents

| | Percent reporting partial support of | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | One adult | Two or more adults | One child | Two or more children |
| Teachers of one-teacher schools | 7.30 | 4.88 | 6.43 | 5.87 |
| Teachers of two-teacher schools | 10.54 | 5.06 | 3.79 | 3.78 |
| Village elementary teachers | 11.51 | 6.34 | 3.74 | 4.88 |
| Village principals | 25.53 | 6.37 | 12.76 | 2.12 |

While some overlapping is represented in the percentages of Tables 38 and 39, it may be inferred that about 10 percent of the teachers in the one-teacher schools support total dependents while an additional 20 percent contribute to the support of partial dependents. The proportions are approximately the same for the two-teacher and village groups. The principals represent a much older group, and predominantly a male group; the proportion supporting dependents is consequently higher than among the classroom teachers.

The proportion of classroom teachers who contribute to the support of dependents is apparently much higher in the cities than in the rural districts. Englehardt found that, in the second-class and third-class cities of New York and in the villages employing superintendents, over 50 percent of the teachers are supporting others than themselves. About the same proportion was found in St. Louis in 1915. The Baltimore School Survey (1921) revealed the fact that the unmarried women teachers in the elementary schools who had passed the age of thirty supported a much higher proportion of dependents than did the unmarried women teachers under thirty. The older group of unmarried women, indeed, very closely approximated the men teachers of the high schools in this respect. A young woman just entering the public-school service usually has only herself to support, and frequently through living with her parents for part of the year at least she is not even entirely self-dependent. If she remains in the service for ten or fifteen years, however, her parents approach old age, the brothers in the family marry and acquire responsibilities of their own, and the care of the older people tends to devolve upon the unmarried daughter.

This hypothesis that the unmarried woman teacher tends, so to speak, to *acquire dependents* as she grows older is of very large significance in the construction of salary schedules. The wages of unmarried women teachers are commonly based upon the assumption that such teachers have only themselves to support. This assumption has some measure of validity when applied to teachers under thirty, but is quite unjustified when extended to the older age-groups.

The rural-school teachers as we have found (Table 2) constitute a relatively young group. The median age of the 2,493 teachers and principals represented by our returns was 25.2 years. The median age of the village teachers was well under thirty. It is clear, then, that the development of a relatively permanent and well-trained staff of teachers for the rural schools will mean much larger proportions in the older age-groups. This in turn will mean the need of higher salaries, especially for the more mature teachers. It would probably be impossible to insure a significant increase in the average length of service on the basis of the present salary-schedules.

## (E) Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to Investment in Pensions and Insurance

### Table 40.—Amount Paid on Pension

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 344 | 23.05 | 43 | 18.14 | 135 | 19.42 | 4 | 8.51 | 10 | 45.45 | 536 | 21.49 |
| None | 165 | 11.05 | 7 | 2.95 | 21 | 3.02 | 5 | 10.63 | .. | .. | 198 | 7.94 |
| $1–1.99 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 2–2.99 | 7 | .46 | 1 | .42 | 5 | .71 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 13 | .52 |
| 3–3.99 | 17 | 1.13 | 2 | .84 | 6 | .86 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 25 | 1.00 |
| 4–4.99 | 20 | 1.34 | 2 | .84 | 8 | 1.15 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 31 | 1.24 |
| 5–5.99 | 118 | 7.90 | 15 | 6.32 | 11 | 1.58 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 145 | 5.81 |
| 6–6.99 | 133 | 8.91 | 18 | 7.59 | 31 | 4.46 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 183 | 7.34 |
| 7–7.99 | 308 | 20.64 | 34 | 14.34 | 80 | 11.51 | .. | .. | 2 | 9.09 | 424 | 17.00 |
| 8–8.99 | 147 | 9.85 | 29 | 12.23 | 116 | 16.69 | 2 | 4.25 | 3 | 13.63 | 297 | 11.91 |
| 9–9.99 | 150 | 10.05 | 39 | 16.45 | 114 | 16.40 | 3 | 6.38 | 3 | 13.63 | 309 | 12.39 |
| 10–10.99 | 44 | 2.94 | 17 | 7.17 | 67 | 9.64 | 3 | 6.38 | 2 | 9.09 | 133 | 5.33 |
| 11–11.99 | 7 | .46 | 14 | 5.90 | 31 | 4.46 | 9 | 19.14 | .. | .. | 61 | 2.44 |
| 12–12.99 | 23 | 1.54 | 7 | 2.95 | 43 | 6.18 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 76 | 3.04 |
| 13–13.99 | 1 | .06 | 9 | 3.79 | 9 | 1.29 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 22 | .88 |
| 14–14.99 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 3 | .43 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 8 | .32 |
| 15–15.99 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | 4 | .57 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 7 | .28 |
| 16–16.99 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 6 | .86 | 4 | 8.51 | .. | .. | 12 | .48 |
| 17–17.99 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 18–18.99 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| 19–19.99 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 20–20.99 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| * * * | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 25–25.99 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| * * * | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 40–40.99 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

| | One-teacher schools | Two-teacher schools | Village elementary | Village principals |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Medians including those reporting "none" | $6.36 | $7.62 | $8.00 | $10.88 |
| Median annual cost to those carrying pensions | $6.95 | 7.66 | $8.10 | $11.33 |

It will be noted that a very large majority in all four groups avail themselves of the opportunities provided by the pension funds.

There are to be noted here: (1) the relatively small number of classroom teachers who carry life insurance; (2) the slight but general increase in the proportion carrying insurance and in the amount carried as we pass from the younger to the older groups; and (3) the much larger proportion carrying insurance and the much larger amounts carried among the principals as compared with the classroom teachers.

TABLE 41.—AMOUNT PAID ON LIFE INSURANCE

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 562 | 37.66 | 105 | 44.30 | 354 | 52.37 | 11 | 23.40 | 12 | 54.54 | 1,044 | 41.87 |
| None | 595 | 39.87 | 68 | 28.69 | 130 | 18.70 | 12 | 25.53 | 5 | 22.72 | 810 | 32.49 |
| $1–4.99 | 11 | .73 | 1 | .42 | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 13 | .52 |
| 5–9.99 | 28 | 1.87 | 5 | 2.10 | 14 | 2.01 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 59 | 2.36 |
| 10–14.99 | 41 | 2.74 | 8 | 3.37 | 22 | 3.16 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 73 | 2.92 |
| 15–19.99 | 8 | .53 | .. | .. | 12 | 1.72 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 21 | .84 |
| 20–24.99 | 47 | 3.15 | 7 | 2.95 | 20 | 2.87 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 74 | 2.96 |
| 25–29.99 | 18 | 1.20 | .. | .. | 22 | 3.16 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 41 | 1.64 |
| 30–34.99 | 27 | 1.80 | 13 | 5.48 | 10 | 1.43 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 51 | 2.04 |
| 35–39.99 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 28 | 4.02 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 32 | 1.28 |
| 40–44.99 | 62 | 4.15 | 15 | 6.32 | 8 | 1.15 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 76 | 3.04 |
| 45–49.99 | 14 | .93 | .. | .. | 14 | 2.01 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 30 | 1.20 |
| 50–54.99 | 44 | 2.94 | 5 | 2.10 | 30 | 4.31 | 1 | 2.12 | 4 | 18.18 | 84 | 3.36 |
| 55–59.99 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 60–64.99 | 8 | .53 | 5 | 2.10 | 8 | 1.15 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 23 | .92 |
| 65–69.99 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 70–74.99 | 4 | .26 | .. | .. | 3 | .43 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 8 | .32 |
| 75–79.99 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4 | .57 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 6 | .24 |
| 80–84.99 | 2 | .13 | 1 | .42 | 3 | .43 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 7 | .28 |
| 85–89.99 | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 90–94.99 | 2 | .13 | 1 | .42 | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| 95–99.99 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 100–129.99 * * * | 10 | .67 | 3 | 1.26 | 9 | 1.29 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 23 | .92 |
| 130–139.99 * * * | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 140–149.99 * * * | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 150 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| 300 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |
| Percent making no report or reporting no insurance payments | | 77.53 | | | | 72.99 | | 71.07 | | | | 48.93 |
| Median annual cost to those carrying insurance | | $25.55 | | | | $25.15 | | $30.18 | | | | $50.00 |

## (F) DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL-SCHOOL TEACHERS AS TO OTHER FORMS OF SAVING AND INVESTMENT

From these figures it seems that the savings of rural teachers are inversely proportionate to their salaries. This is clearly due to the increase in living expenses as one passes from the smaller to the larger communities, and, in the case of the principals, to their heavier reponsibilities for the support of dependents. It is altogether possible that teachers, whether just entering the service or considering a change from country to town, do not often take into account the compensating factor of lower living costs in the open country. A campaign of information emphasizing this advantage

of open-country teaching might well be carried on among high-school seniors and normal-school students. It should not be concluded, however, that even the widest possible dissemination of this information would turn the tide of mature and experienced teachers toward the open-country service. As has been suggested in an earlier section, the financial reward is only one of several factors that operate in determining a teacher's choice of location (see Table 28 and accompanying discussion).

TABLE 42.—OTHER SAVINGS AND INVESTMENTS

| | One-teacher schools | Two-teacher schools | Village elementary | Village principals |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Percent making no report | 28.3 | 28.2 | 41.9 | 22.3 |
| Percent reporting "none" | 14.8 | 11.4 | 8.7 | .. |
| Range, from zero in each group to a maximum of savings | $1,000.00 | $1,250.00 | $800.00 | $1,250.00 |
| Median excluding those not reporting | 221.89 | 215.38 | 172.41 | 191.66 |
| Median salaries (Table 29) | 837.00 | 915.00 | 935.00 | 1,190.00 |
| Ratio, median savings to median salaries | 26.5% | 23.5% | 18.4% | 16.1% |
| Median living-costs (Table 35) | $260.60 | $400.84 | $551.20 | $676.00 |
| Ratio, median savings to median living-costs | 85.1% | 53.7% | 31.4% | 28.2% |

For comparison with the data presented in Table 42 regarding savings and investments we have no reports from city teachers in New York State. A similar inquiry, however, was addressed to the teachers of Baltimore a few months before the question-sheet was sent to the New York rural-school teachers. The information was given for the school year, 1919–20. At that time the average salary of the white elementary teachers of Baltimore was approximately $1,100. Twenty-eight percent of these teachers answered the question regarding savings, and the median amount reported for the year in question was $50, or less than five percent of the median salary. The contrast with the much higher percents for all of the groups of rural-school teachers in New York is striking.

## CHAPTER VI

# THE EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF RURAL-SCHOOL TEACHERS

THROUGHOUT the country the teachers of the rural schools as a group are less well equipped from the standpoint of both general and professional education than are the teachers of the urban schools. The differences between the two groups vary in the different states. They are less marked as a rule in the states that have the largest proportions of city dwellers. Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Jersey have in their rural schools higher proportions of teachers with "standard training"[1] than have such states as Illinois, Missouri, Nebraska, and the Dakotas. The northern states as a rule are better off in this respect than are the southern states, and the Pacific Coast and Rocky Mountain states on the whole are farther advanced than are the eastern and middle states. New York holds a position in advance of Pennsylvania, but significantly below Rhode Island, Massachusetts, and Connecticut. Generally speaking, its record is far below what one would expect in the state that leads all others in wealth and population.

The actual situation with regard to the educational equipment of the rural-school teachers of New York is set forth in Tables 43 to 49 inclusive.

[1] "Standard training" for classroom teachers in the elementary service is now recognized as two years of education beyond graduation from a four-year high-school. This standard is generally met at the present time by teachers appointed to elementary-school posts in the larger and more progressive cities. There is, indeed, a distinct movement toward raising this standard to three years and ultimately to four years in such cities.

## (A) Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to the Extent of their General Education

Table 43.—Years Attended Elementary School

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 177 | 11.86 | 26 | 10.97 | 91 | 13.09 | 6 | 12.76 | 7 | 31.81 | 307 | 12.31 |
| 1 | 4 | .26 | 2 | .84 | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 7 | .28 |
| 2 | 4 | .26 | 1 | .42 | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 6 | .24 |
| 3 | 1 | .06 | 1 | .42 | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4 | .16 |
| 4 | 10 | .67 | .. | .. | 6 | .86 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 16 | .64 |
| 5 | 35 | 2.34 | 3 | 1.26 | 13 | 1.87 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 52 | 2.08 |
| 6 | 113 | 7.57 | 14 | 5.90 | 33 | 4.74 | 2 | 4.25 | 2 | 9.09 | 164 | 6.57 |
| 7 | 287 | 19.23 | 34 | 14.34 | 99 | 14.24 | 3 | 6.38 | 7 | 31.81 | 430 | 17.24 |
| 8 | 631 | 42.29 | 115 | 48.52 | 340 | 48.92 | 18 | 38.29 | 5 | 22.72 | 1,109 | 44.48 |
| 9 | 129 | 8.64 | 26 | 10.97 | 57 | 8.20 | 6 | 12.76 | .. | .. | 218 | 8.74 |
| 10 | 80 | 5.36 | 15 | 6.32 | 34 | 4.89 | 3 | 6.38 | 1 | 4.54 | 133 | 5.33 |
| 11 | 3 | .20 | .. | .. | 8 | 1.15 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 14 | .56 |
| 12 | 6 | .40 | .. | .. | 8 | 1.15 | 5 | 10.63 | .. | .. | 19 | .76 |
| 13 | 6 | .40 | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 8 | .32 |
| Totals..... | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

| | One-teacher schools | Two-teacher schools | Village elementary | Village principals |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Percent[1] attending elementary school 7 years or less | 34.5 | 26.0 | 25.6 | 12.2 |
| Percent[1] attending elementary school 8 years or more..... | 65.5 | 74.0 | 74.4 | 87.8 |

The relatively large proportion of teachers in one-teacher schools who have had less than eight years of elementary schooling is possibly to be explained by the fact that this group contains the largest proportion of teachers who were born and brought up in the open country. It is also possible that the proportion of teachers who in their school days were able to complete the elementary-school work in less than eight years is higher in this group than in the others.

A clear majority of the teachers in all groups are thus seen to have had four years or more of high-school education if those making no report are excluded from the computations. If the no-report group is included and assumed to have had no secondary schooling, the proportions would be lowered, but only in the two-teacher group would the proportion fall below fifty percent. Even assuming that all of those making no report were limited in their education to what

[1] Excluding number making "no report."

the elementary school provides, the proportion of classroom teachers falling in this group would be much lower than in many other states. In Pennsylvania, for example, it was estimated in 1920 that twenty-five percent of the rural-school teachers had had no more than elementary schooling.[1] On the other hand, of the *new* teachers in the village and rural schools of New Jersey[2] in 1919–20, only twenty percent had had less than two years of high-school training, and in Massachusetts[3] in 1920, of *all* of the teachers in the state, 85.9 percent had had at least two years of education *beyond high-school graduation.*

TABLE 44.—YEARS ATTENDED HIGH SCHOOL OR ACADEMY

| | One-teacher schools | Percent | Two-teacher schools | Percent | Village elementary | Percent | Village principals | Percent | Unclassified | Percent | Total | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 155 | 10.38 | 30 | 12.65 | 84 | 12.08 | 14 | 29.78 | 6 | 27.27 | 289 | 11.59 |
| 1 year | 55 | 3.68 | 8 | 3.37 | 21 | 3.02 | 4 | 8.51 | .. | .. | 88 | 3.52 |
| 2 years | 146 | 9.78 | 29 | 12.23 | 51 | 7.33 | 6 | 12.76 | .. | .. | 232 | 9.30 |
| 3 " | 299 | 20.04 | 63 | 26.58 | 78 | 11.22 | 5 | 19.14 | .. | .. | 445 | 17.92 |
| 4 " | 685 | 45.91 | 99 | 41.77 | 411 | 59.13 | 17 | 36.17 | 14 | 63.63 | 1,226 | 49.17 |
| 5 " | 135 | 9.04 | 7 | 2.95 | 45 | 6.47 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 188 | 7.54 |
| 6 " | 16 | 1.07 | 1 | .42 | 4 | .57 | .. | .. | 1 | 4.54 | 22 | .88 |
| 7 " | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 23 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

| | One-teacher schools | Two-teacher schools | Village elementary | Village principals |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Percent[4] attending secondary school 3 years or less | 37.4 | 48.3 | 24.5 | 0.00 |
| Percent[4] attending secondary school 4 years or more | 62.6 | 51.7 | 75.5 | 100.00 |

Recent survey reports from other states indicate the following proportions of rural-school teachers who are at least high-school graduates or the equivalent: Alabama, 38 percent; Colorado, 35

[1] Proceedings, Univ. of Pennsylvania Schoolmen's Week, 1920, p. 81.

[2] N. J. State Report, 1920, p. 41.

[3] Mass. State Report, 1920, p. 34.

[4] Excluding number making "no report." The latter number was included in the corresponding table of the preliminary report (*A Report to Rural-school Patrons*, p. 51) under the assumption that those making no report had not attended a high school or academy, and the proportion reported as having at least a four-year high-school education is consequently somewhat higher in the above table.

percent; Virginia, 41 percent; Nebraska, 53 percent. It may be inferred, then, that the condition in New York in this respect is distinctly favorable as contrasted with many if not most of the other states, although New York's rank is still well below that of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and New Jersey, and probably below that of Connecticut, California, Arizona, and Montana.

It should be noted in Table 44 that a rather large proportion of teachers in one-teacher and two-teacher schools have had only two or three years of secondary education in high school or academy. A few of these, undoubtedly, are the older teachers who attended normal schools at the time when these institutions admitted students from the tenth and eleventh grades of the high schools.

TABLE 45.—YEARS ATTENDED COLLEGE

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 1,450 | 97.18 | 227 | 95.77 | 657 | 94.53 | 36 | 76.59 | 22 | 100.00 | 2,392 | 95.95 |
| 1 year | 27 | 1.80 | 10 | 4.22 | 17 | 2.44 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 56 | 2.24 |
| 2 years | 11 | .73 | .. | .. | 6 | .86 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 19 | .76 |
| 3 " | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 7 | 1.00 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 10 | .40 |
| 4 " | 2 | .13 | .. | .. | 8 | 1.15 | 6 | 12.76 | .. | .. | 16 | .64 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

| | One-teacher schools | Two-teacher schools | Village elementary | Village principals |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Percent reporting attendance at college | 2.72 | 4.23 | 5.47 | 23.41 |
| Percent presumably college graduates | 0.13 | 0.00 | 1.15 | 12.76 |
| Percent reporting graduate study | 0.06 | 0.00[1] | 0.28 | 2.12 |

Table 45 calls for little comment. The rural-school service is still very far from attractive to college-trained women, although the proportion of village principals who have had some contact with the colleges is encouraging.

[1] One teacher in each of this group reported attendance in a class of graduate students.

## (B) Distribution of Rural-school Teachers as to the Extent and Character of Their Professional Education

### Table 46.—Years Attended High-school Teacher-training Class

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 691 | 46.31 | 120 | 50.63 | 425 | 61.14 | 25 | 53.19 | 18 | 81.81 | 1,279 | 51.30 |
| 1 year | 724 | 48.52 | 109 | 45.99 | 251 | 36.11 | 18 | 38.29 | 4 | 18.18 | 1,106 | 44.36 |
| 2 years | 75 | 5.02 | 7 | 2.95 | 18 | 2.58 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 103 | 4.13 |
| 3 " | 1 | .06 | 1 | .42 | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 4 " | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

| | One-teacher schools | Two-teacher schools | Village elementary | Village principals |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Percent of teachers reporting attendance in high-school teacher-training class | 53.06 | 49.36 | 38.83 | 46.79 |
| Percent reporting that they hold training-class certificates | 49.06 | 44.72 | 27.91 | 21.27 |

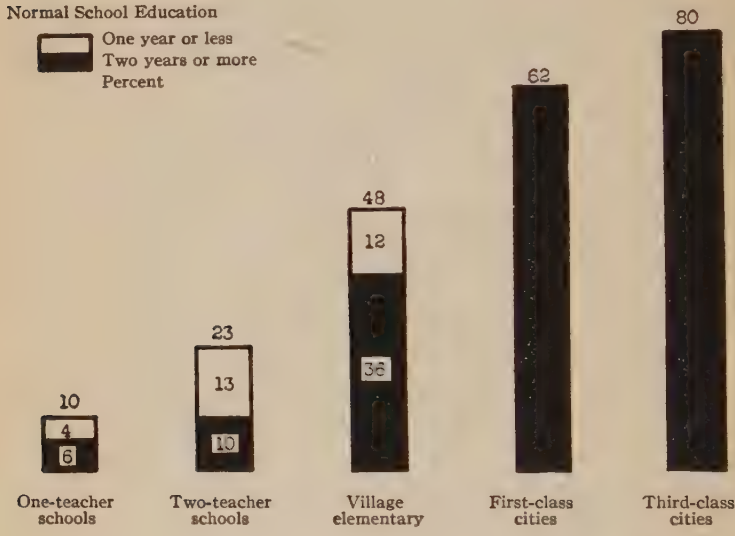
### Table 47.—Years Attended Normal School or City Training School

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 1,334 | 89.41 | 183 | 77.21 | 361 | 51.94 | 35 | 74.46 | 17 | 77.27 | 1,930 | 77.41 |
| 0–½ | 24 | 1.60 | 9 | 3.79 | 10 | 1.43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 43 | 1.72 |
| 1 | 51 | 3.41 | 21 | 8.86 | 77 | 11.07 | 4 | 8.51 | .. | .. | 153 | 6.13 |
| 2 | 50 | 3.35 | 16 | 6.75 | 200 | 28.77 | 3 | 6.38 | 4 | 18.18 | 273 | 10.95 |
| 3 | 23 | 1.54 | 6 | 2.53 | 34 | 4.89 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 65 | 2.60 |
| 4 | 9 | .60 | 2 | .84 | 10 | 1.43 | 3 | 6.38 | 1 | 4.54 | 25 | 1.00 |
| 5 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .28 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| 6 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

| | One-teacher schools | Two-teacher schools | Village elementary | Teachers 50 N. Y 3d class cities | Elementary teachers 7 N. Y. 2d class cities |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Percent of teachers who attended normal school 1 year or less | 5.01 | 12.65 | 12.50 | | |
| Percent of teachers who attended normal school 2 years only ("standard training") | 3.35 | 6.75 | 28.77 | 80.1[1] | 62.0[1] |
| Percent of teachers who attended normal school more than 2 years | 2.20 | 3.37 | 6.74 | | |
| Percent who report that they hold the elementary normal-school certificate | 4.82 | 10.54 | 30.50 | | |

[1] Medians approximated from Engelhardt's study.

Slightly more than one-half of the teachers in one-teacher schools and almost one-half of those in two-teacher schools are thus seen to be products of the high-school teacher-training classes.[1] The work of these classes has been so significant to the New York rural schools that it was made a separate subject of study the results of which will be summarized in Chapter VII.




Undoubtedly the most significant fact regarding the education of the rural-school teachers of New York is the very small proportion of normal-school graduates in the one-teacher schools. Our returns indicate this proportion to be in the neighborhood of five percent.[2] If these returns represent fairly the situation in the state at large, it would seem that, out of a total of 8,400 teachers in the one-teacher

[1] In this case it is safe to assume that the number "not reporting" is approximately the number that have not attended teacher-training classes. This assumption is justified by the close correspondence between the proportion reporting such attendance and the proportion holding training-class certificates.

[2] The correspondence between the proportion reporting two or more years normal-school attendance and the proportion holding elementary normal-school certificates indicates that the group making "no report" may be safely taken as the group that did not attend normal school.

schools, not more than 420 have had the amount of preparation generally agreed upon as the lowest acceptable minimum for elementary teachers.

The proportion of teachers who have met this minimal standard increases as we pass to the two-teacher and village schools, but in no one of the groups do teachers with standard training constitute anything approaching a majority. The striking contrast with the situation in the second-class and third-class cities is shown above in Table 47 and the graph on page 56.

TABLE 48.—ATTENDANCE UPON SUMMER SESSIONS

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 1,050 | 70.37 | 186 | 77.63 | 508 | 73.09 | 35 | 74.46 | 13 | 59.09 | 1,792 | 71.77 |
| 1 | 259 | 17.35 | 30 | 12.65 | 114 | 16.40 | 5 | 10.63 | 8 | 36.36 | 416 | 16.68 |
| 2 | 120 | 8.04 | 9 | 3.79 | 39 | 5.61 | 3 | 6.38 | .. | .. | 171 | 6.85 |
| 3 | 41 | 2.74 | 7 | 2.95 | 17 | 2.44 | 1 | 2.12 | 1 | 4.54 | 67 | 2.48 |
| 4 | 16 | 1.07 | 4 | 1.68 | 10 | 1.43 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 31 | 1.24 |
| 5 | 5 | .33 | 1 | .42 | 3 | .43 | 2 | 4.25 | .. | .. | 11 | .44 |
| 6 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .12 |
| 9 | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | 1 | .14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| Totals ... | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

The higher proportion of summer-school attendance in the one-teacher group as compared with the two-teacher and village groups is partly explained by the recently adopted policy of the State Education Department accepting summer-session study in lieu of attendance upon high-school teacher-training classes. (See below, Chapter VII.) In general, however, it can be safely inferred that the rural-school teachers of New York have not as yet acquired the "summer-school habit." This, if a fact, is the more regrettable in view of the large proportion of these teachers who have sub-standard training. The attendance of teachers upon the summer sessions of normal schools, colleges, and universities has increased remarkably during the past five years. It is conservatively estimated that, in the summer sessions of 1921, at least one-fifth of all of the teachers

of the country were enrolled. It is to be doubted whether New York as a whole contributed its due proportion to this total.

TABLE 49.—SPECIAL PREPARATION FOR RURAL-SCHOOL TEACHING

(a) Number Reporting Taking Special Rural-school Courses

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 300 | 20.10 | 65 | 27.42 | 293 | 42.16 | 18 | 38.29 | 11 | 50.00 | 687 | 27.55 |
| Yes | 212 | 14.20 | 32 | 13.50 | 60 | 8.63 | 4 | 8.51 | 2 | 9.08 | 310 | 12.43 |
| No | 980 | 65.70 | 140 | 59.08 | 342 | 49.21 | 25 | 53.20 | 9 | 40.92 | 1,496 | 60.02 |
| Totals | 1,492 | .. | 237 | .. | 695 | .. | 47 | .. | 22 | .. | 2,493 | .. |

(b) Types of Courses Represented

| | One-teacher schools | Per-cent | Two-teacher schools | Per-cent | Village elementary | Per-cent | Village principals | Per-cent | Unclassified | Per-cent | Total | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No report | 82 | 5.49 | 17 | 7.17 | 25 | 3.59 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 124 | 4.97 |
| School Management | 90 | 6.03 | 11 | 4.64 | 20 | 2.87 | 2 | 4.25 | 2 | 9.09 | 125 | 5.01 |
| Arithmetic | 1 | .06 | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .08 |
| Physical Training | 1 | .06 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .04 |
| School Economics | 10 | .67 | 1 | .42 | .. | .. | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 12 | .48 |
| Rural administration | 24 | 1.60 | 2 | .84 | 12 | 1.72 | 1 | 2.12 | .. | .. | 39 | 1.56 |
| Nature Study | 5 | .33 | .. | .. | 3 | .43 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 8 | .32 |
| Methods | 11 | .73 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 11 | .44 |
| Totals | 224 | .. | 32 | .. | 60 | .. | 4 | .. | 2 | .. | 322 | .. |
| Repeats | 12 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 12 | .. |
| Totals | 212 | .. | 32 | .. | 60 | .. | 4 | .. | 2 | .. | 310 | .. |

It is clear from Table 49 that the agencies preparing rural-school teachers for New York State do not require, and probably do not usually offer, specific courses dealing with the specialized problems of rural-school teaching. This problem will be discussed in greater detail in the report of the study of the high-school training classes. (See Chapter VII.)

TABLE 50.—TEACHERS' SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING WORK OF NORMAL SCHOOLS OR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHER-TRAINING CLASSES

| | |
|---|---|
| Number making no report | 1,763 |
| Number expressing complete dissatisfaction with work from point of view of rural teaching | 9 |
| Detailed criticisms and suggestions: | |
| Observation of expert teaching— | |
| Not enough | 20 |
| Undirected | 1 |
| Organized for graded instead of rural | 13 |
| Not enough in higher grades | 1 |
| Practice teaching— | |
| Not enough | 84 |
| Organized for graded instead of rural | 34 |
| More model teaching needed | 2 |
| Insufficient distribution over grades | 2 |
| Methods— | |
| Not enough special | 18 |
| Not enough special— | |
| For retarded children | 2 |
| For physiology | 1 |
| For history | 1 |
| For primary | 1 |
| For nature study | 2 |
| For drawing | 1 |
| For arithmetic | 1 |
| For geography | 1 |
| Not enough general | 84 |
| Organized for graded instead of rural | 30 |
| Not modern | 1 |
| No encouragement of independence | 1 |
| Too much methods | 1 |
| Professional insight— | |
| Inadequate analysis of rural problems | 25 |
| Misdirected emphasis | 1 |
| Too narrow a view of education | 10 |
| Insufficient grasp of teacher's responsibility | 1 |
| Better integrated professional work | 1 |
| Professional studies— | |
| Inadequate school management | 24 |
| Inadequate school management with relation to discipline | 23 |
| Not sufficiently practical | 14 |
| No instruction in making program | 4 |
| No orientation course given | 1 |
| No course in tests and measurements | 2 |
| Inadequate course in psychology | 5 |
| Organization— | |
| Inadequate supervision | 4 |
| Inadequate supervision of practice teaching | 3 |
| Inadequate supervision of primary work | 11 |
| Inadequate instruction in record keeping | 7 |
| Inadequate in school government | 1 |
| Too low entrance requirements | 1 |
| Provided no contact with successful rural school teachers | 2 |
| Provided no preparation for instruction of foreigners | 2 |

Organization (continued)—

| | |
|---|---|
| Preparation does not conform to short periods | 7 |
| Course too short | 4 |
| Classes too large | 2 |
| No preparation for organizing school | 5 |
| Not enough help in making plans | 7 |
| Gives no standard for judging text books | 2 |
| Too much lecture work | 1 |
| Inadequate concentration on professional work | 1 |
| Not concise enough | 1 |
| Curriculum not related to State course of study | 7 |
| Needed a course in community relations | 1 |
| Lack of thoroughness | 1 |
| Drill in methods, training in teaching, and the study of psychology should all be given at the same time | 1 |

Service—

| | |
|---|---|
| State library available but not disclosed | 1 |
| Pupils were not advised of scholarships for high marks | 1 |

Personnel—

| | |
|---|---|
| Inadequate critics (in general) | 5 |
| Critics unacquainted with rural conditions | 1 |
| Critics and academic teachers disagree | 1 |

Subject matter—

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Not enough (general) | 36 | Music | 2 |
| Physical training | 10 | School Law | 3 |
| Sewing | 2 | Public Speaking | 1 |
| English | 5 | Manual Training | 1 |
| Map Drawing | 1 | Agriculture | 3 |
| Lower Grade | 12 | Nature Study | 4 |
| Physiology and Hygiene | 1 | Drawing | 3 |
| Science | 1 | Penmanship | 2 |
| Story Telling | 1 | Cooking | 1 |
| Psychology | 5 | Too much | 6 |
| Standardized solutions | | Not focused | 1 |
| Not enough references | 2 | Not professionally organized | 3 |
| No help in selecting | 2 | | |

SATISFACTORY

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Quite satisfactory | 158 | In specific methods for retarded children | 1 |
| In rural school observation | 3 | In general method | 28 |
| In professional studies | 2 | In practice teaching | 4 |
| In plan making | 5 | In special methods | 1 |
| In school management | 3 | In subject matter review | 5 |
| In general attitude conveyed | 1 | With reference to primary teachers | 1 |
| In dealing with rural problems | 2 | In history | 1 |
| In English | 1 | In arithmetic | 2 |
| In psychology | 3 | In literature | 1 |

| | |
|---|---|
| Totals | 2,597 |
| Less repeats | 104 |
| Total | 2,493 |

The criticism most frequently mentioned has reference to the small amount of the practice teaching provided by the agencies for pre-service training. Much more significant, however, are the lack of facilities for practice teaching *in rural schools* and the general failure to provide a specialized type of training for the specialized service represented by the rural schools. It is noteworthy also that the criticism that stands third in frequency of mention has reference to the inadequacy of the courses in subject-matter.

### (C) The Professional and General Reading of Rural-school Teachers

Table 51.—Periodicals Taken

| | |
|---|---|
| No report | 346 |
| None | 46 |

| (a) Professional | | (b) General | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Normal Instructor and Primary Plans | 1,664 | Current Events | 165 |
| New York State Teachers Journal | 173 | National Geographic | 149 |
| Primary Education | 147 | Pathfinder | 115 |
| Popular Educator | 63 | Literary Digest | 101 |
| School Arts | 15 | Independent | 12 |
| School Century | 9 | American | 10 |
| Everyday Plans | 8 | Review of Reviews | 8 |
| School World | 6 | Outlook | 7 |
| Kindergarten and First Grade | 6 | World's Work | 7 |
| American Education | 5 | Mentor | 7 |
| New Education | 4 | Étude | 6 |
| Monographs | 4 | Youth's Companion | 6 |
| Journal of the National Ed. Ass'n | 3 | Physical Culture | 3 |
| Correct English | 2 | Saturday Evening Post | 3 |
| Journal of Education | 2 | Leslie's Monthly | 2 |
| School Board Journal | 2 | St. Nicholas | 2 |
| School Bulletin | 2 | Bird Lore | 2 |
| Others (mentioned once each) | 20 | Journal of Geography | 2 |
| | | Country Gentleman | 2 |
| | | Popular Science | 2 |
| | | Others (mentioned once each) | 18 |
| Total | | | 3,157 |
| Less repeats | | | 664 |
| Total | | | 2,493 |

Between ten and twelve percent of the teachers report that they take no periodicals; this proportion would be increased if we assumed that those who did not reply to the question also fell in the group. The fact that approximately two-thirds of the rural-school teachers subscribe for *The Normal Instructor and Primary Plans*

should be looked upon as a tribute to this journal as well, perhaps, as an indication of a weakness in the pre-service training of the teachers. What the periodical in question and the third and fourth journals listed supply the teacher is something that he or she finds very useful,—namely definite advice and suggestion as to the actual work of the classroom. In the lower grades these very specific suggestions are invaluable.

That relatively few rural-school teachers (only eight or nine percent) are members of the State Teachers' Association may be inferred from the small number who take the official journal of the Association. Apparently only three of the 2,497 teachers reporting are members of the National Education Association. The spirit of professionalism seems to be at a very low ebb among the rural-school teachers of New York.

The facts set forth in Table 52 bear out the inferences drawn from the preceding tables. Assuming that a large proportion of those making "no report" should be listed with the group reporting "no books read," one may safely conclude that a majority of the rural-school teachers do little or no professional reading beyond the one professional journal for which most of them subscribe. On the other hand a substantial minority report that they do something in the way of systematic professional reading. The work most frequently mentioned, *Public School Methods*, is a seven volume compilation of educational practice which is sold by traveling agents of the publishers to rural-school teachers. It has been prepared with the needs of the immature and untrained teachers primarily in view. Certain of the other books that stand relatively high in the list are designed especially for the rural-school teacher; for example, Dinsmore's *Teaching a District School*, Wray's *Jean Mitchell's School*, Carney's *Country Life and the Country School*, and Barnes's *English in the Country Schools*. Particularly encouraging is the relatively high frequency with which books setting forth new points of view in education are mentioned; for example, Evelyn Dewey's *New Schools for Old;* John and Evelyn Dewey's *Schools of Tomorrow;* and Patri's *A Schoolmaster of the Great City*.

Whether the rural-school teachers as a group do less professional reading than do the urban teachers is a question that cannot now

be answered because of the lack of comparable data, nor have we definite information that would enable us to compare the rural-school teachers of New York with the rural-school teachers of other

TABLE 52.—PROFESSIONAL BOOKS READ IN WHOLE OR IN PART DURING THE YEAR

| | |
|---|---|
| Number making no report | 1,595 |
| Number reporting no books read | 141 |
| Books reported in the order of frequency of mention: | |
| | Times mentioned |
| Public-school Methods | 81 |
| Teaching a District School (Dinsmore) | 65 |
| What is English? (Ward) | 55 |
| Science and Art of Teaching (LaRue) | 54 |
| Classroom Management (Bagley) | 47 |
| New Schools for Old (E. Dewey) | 36 |
| Everyday Problems in Teaching (O'Shea) | 32 |
| A Schoolmaster of the Great City (Patri) | 31 |
| Jean Mitchell's School (Wray) | 29 |
| How I Did It | 29 |
| The Teaching of Arithmetic (Brown-Coffman) | 26 |
| School Management (White) | 22 |
| The Art of Teaching (White) | 21 |
| Schools of Tomorrow (J. and E. Dewey) | 20 |
| Classroom Organization and Control (Sears) | 20 |
| All the Children of All the People (Smith) | 17 |
| Talks to Teachers (James) | 17 |
| How to Tell Stories to Children (Bryant) | 17 |
| The Teaching of English (Chubb) | 17 |
| History of Education (author not named) | 12 |
| How to Teach (Strayer and Norsworthy) | 12 |
| Country Life and the Country School (Carney) | 11 |
| English in the Country Schools (Barnes) | 11 |
| How to Study and Teaching How to Study (McMurry) | 11 |
| Methods in English (author not named) | 10 |
| Teaching Children to Read (Klapper) | 10 |
| A New School Management (Seeley) | 9 |
| A History of Education (Seeley) | 9 |
| School Law (Finegan) | 9 |
| Methods in Education (McEvoy) | 8 |
| Rural-school Management and Methods (author not named) | 8 |
| School Management (author not named) | 8 |
| Teaching in Rural Schools (Woofter) | 7 |
| How to Tell Stories (Bryant) | 7 |
| Rural Life and the Rural School (Cubberley) | 7 |
| Methods (unspecified and authors unnamed) | 7 |
| Methods of Teaching (Page) | 6 |
| Art of Story Telling (Cowles) | 6 |
| Theory and Practice of Teaching (Page) | 6 |
| Stories to Tell Children (Bryant) | 6 |
| Types of Teaching (Earhart) | 5 |
| Others (each mentioned fewer than five times) | 270 |

states in this respect. The writer has been told by reputable publishing houses that the demand for professional books from the teachers of New York is small as compared with the demand from teachers in many other states. Taking this statement for what it may be worth; combining with it the clear evidence that the majority of rural-school teachers do little or no professional reading of a systematic character; considering also the relatively small proportion of teachers attending summer sessions (Table 48); and remembering, too, that the proportion of rural-school teachers who belong to state and national professional organizations is negligible; one is justified, we believe, in the conclusion that the teachers in the rural-school service of New York State have not been stimulated to the measure of professional interest and enthusiasm that the teachers of many other states have attained.

## CHAPTER VII

# THE HIGH SCHOOL TEACHER-TRAINING CLASSES

IT IS clear from Table 46 (Chapter VI) that the teacher-training classes in the high schools have played a most important part in the development of the New York rural schools. They have been, indeed, almost the only source from which teachers with any degree whatsoever of professional training have been drawn into the rural-school service. The study of the training classes has consequently been an important part of the present investigation. It is especially important to determine if possible what elements of strength the training classes have contributed to the rural-school personnel; what handicaps, if any, they are confronted with; and the advisability of either continuing them or attempting to replace them with another agency which will do better the important work in which they have been engaged.

### (A) The Origin of the Training Classes

The New York high-school teacher-training classes represent the oldest of existing American agencies for the professional education of teachers. They have an unbroken existence from 1827 when the Legislature passed an act " to promote the education of teachers."[1] and they thus antedate the earliest of the state normal schools (those of Massachusetts) by a full decade. Their organization was in distinct opposition to the movement strongly advocated by DeWitt Clinton and others for the establishment of separate schools for the training of teachers. They represented, therefore, the conviction that teachers should be prepared in institutions of general education by the addition of professional courses to the general studies rather than in distinctly professional institutions. This was

[1] "This is the first act in the country for the education of teachers."—Bul. No. 14, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1920, p. 30

long before the day of the public high school,[1] but the prototype of the high school, the academy, was in existence and had become in New York State an important agency of general secondary education. Students and graduates of the academies were frequently employed as teachers in the common schools. What more natural, then, than an attempt to solve the problem of professional education by incorporating some of the elements of professional study in the academy curricula?

The pressure for the development of truly professional schools continued, however, and in 1844 the first of the New York State normal schools was established at Albany. The appropriations for the training classes in the academies were discontinued at that time, but were resumed in 1849, and later extended to the high schools which began to replace the academies. Even at this early date, the inadequacy of the training-class system was clearly recognized. It was at best but a supplement to, and in no sense an acceptable substitute for, the normal school.[2]

The subsequent history of the New York high-school training classes has been ably chronicled by Dr. Thomas E. Finegan[3] and need not be recounted here. It is sufficient to say that the training classes have been for the three quarters of a century the chief source of supply for trained recruits to the rural school service. While the number both of training classes and of students enrolled in them have sharply declined during the past six or seven years,[4] it is worthy of emphasis that approximately 54 percent of the teachers of one-teacher schools in 1920–21 had had the advantage of the preparation that the training classes provided, and that 49 percent

[1] Boston opened a public high school in 1821 and New York City in 1825. In general, however, the high school made little progress prior to the Civil War, the academy remaining the distinctive type of secondary school.

[2] When the New York plan of preparing teachers in the secondary schools was proposed for Wisconsin in 1857, State Superintendent Barry said in his report: "The entire plan is impracticable and destined of course to fail. . . . The experiment has been fairly and faithfully tried in New York and has failed most signally and disastrously. . . . We may save time, money, and the vexation and shame consequent upon defeat by proceeding at once to the establishment of a State normal school on a wise and liberal basis." In spite of Barry's advice, however, Wisconsin made the experiment, only to abandon it eight years later.

[3] Annual Report, State Education Dept., vol. ii, 1915, pp. 20ff.

[4] The number declined from 113 in 1915 to 50 in 1921.

held training-class certificates. Even if it be granted that the training class as an agency for the professional education of teachers labors under an insuperable handicap as compared with the normal school, it should be remembered that the training classes of New York State have rendered on the whole a positive service.

The facts in the following summary of the condition of the training classes in 1920–21 were gathered from two principal sources: (1) a question-sheet that was filled out and returned by forty-eight of the fifty training-class teachers in the State; and (2) a careful inspection of the work of seventeen of the fifty training classes by five specialists in rural education, all of whom had had extended experience in teaching or supervising high-school training classes in as many different states.[1]

### (B) The Training-Class Students

In 1920–21, the forty-eight training classes forming the subject of this section of the study enrolled 572 students. Both the average and the median enrolment was 12 for each class. The range was from five to 21, and nine of the classes reported enrolments of fewer than 10. Girls constituted 93.2 percent of the enrollment; boys, 6.8 percent. In 29 classes no boys were enrolled; the highest number found in any one class was six, and this maximum was reported in two instances.

The training-class students are chiefly high-school seniors and first-year graduates, but one-seventh of the entire number are below senior grade. This distribution is shown in Table 53.

The average age of the students in the forty-eight training classes reporting is between eighteen and nineteen. In the majority of cases, the teachers report the students to be a fairly mature group, of good health and physique. The reports of the visitors confirm this judgment, and also speak well of the mental abilities of the training-class

[1] The visitors met for a day's conference with the director of this section of the study just before beginning their work. A definite outline of points to be noted was agreed upon. The classes to be visited were so chosen as to be representative of the chief types of communities and the various parts of the State. Each visitor spent a full day or more in each community, studying the work of the class during school hours, and using the remaining time for conferences with the training-class teacher, the high-school principal, the superintendent, and others who were in a position to give help.

TABLE 53.—DISTRIBUTION OF TRAINING-CLASS STUDENTS AS TO HIGH SCHOOL CLASSIFICATION

Graduates ..... 41.6 percent
Seniors ..... 43.5 percent
Below senior rank ..... 14.9 percent

| High-school seniors | | | High-school graduates | | Below senior rank | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| No. in training class | No. of training classes | Total No. of students | No. of training classes | Total No. of students | No. of training classes | Total No. of students |
| No report | 2 | .. | 2 | .. | 2 | .. |
| .. | 1 | .. | 11 | .. | 22 | .. |
| 1 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 6 | 6 |
| 2 | 5 | 10 | 4 | 8 | 6 | 12 |
| 3 | 5 | 15 | 4 | 12 | 7 | 21 |
| 4 | 5 | 20 | 4 | 16 | 3 | 12 |
| 5 | 7 | 35 | 3 | 15 | .. | .. |
| 6 | 7 | 42 | 4 | 24 | 1 | 6 |
| 7 | 5 | 35 | 4 | 28 | 1 | 7 |
| 8 | 2 | 16 | 3 | 24 | 1 | 8 |
| 9 | 2 | 18 | 4 | 36 | .. | .. |
| 10 | 2 | 20 | 2 | 20 | .. | .. |
| 11 | 2 | 22 | 1 | 11 | .. | .. |
| 12 | 1 | 12 | 1 | 12 | .. | .. |
| 13 | .. | .. | 1 | 13 | 1 | 13 |
| 14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 15 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 16 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 17 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 18 | .. | .. | 1 | 18 | .. | .. |
| Total ..... | 50 | 249 | 50 | 238 | 50 | 85 |
| Percent of total... | .. | 43.5 | .. | 41.6 | .. | 14.9 |

students. Rural homes supply nearly two-thirds of the entire enrolment (65.2%), the remaining third coming from homes in the towns and cities where the training classes are located. This corresponds closely to the proportion of teachers (67.35%) in one-teacher schools who were brought up in the open country. It is a distinct tribute to the high-school training-class system in New York that it has taken so large a proportion of its recruits from rural homes.

Of the 572 training-class students represented by the returns, 430

or 75 percent signified their intention of teaching in one-teacher or two-teacher schools during the following year. While it is possible that others looked forward to securing positions in village schools, it seems probable that a rather substantial minority did not intend to teach at all. A recent study[1] representing twenty-six state and city normal schools revealed the fact that 84.4 percent of the graduates of two-year curricula in 1920 taught during the following year; the corresponding proportions from three-year and four-year curricula were, respectively, 83.2 percent and 88.2 percent. The *effective* output of the training classes, then, seems to be somewhat lower than that of the normal schools represented in the study cited.

The salary expected by the training-class students for their first year of service is approximately $800. In thirteen of the classes, the average of expected salary is as low as $720 for the nine months' term; in two of the classes the expectancy is as high as $1,000. Reference to Table 31 reveals the fact that the training-class graduates anticipate for their first year a salary that practically equals the median for the entire group of teachers in one-teacher schools.

### (C) The Training-Class Teachers

Age and Experience.—The teachers in charge of the training classes are exclusively women. They constitute as mature and stable a group as the entire range of the public-school service of the State presents. Of forty-seven reporting as to age, only six are under thirty, while half have passed the age of forty-five. Only one, however, is as old as fifty-eight. Of forty-eight reporting as to experience, none has taught less than five years, and only eight have taught less than ten years. The median of experience is 20.5 years, and the maximum (reached by only one teacher) is 35 years.

Nationality.—Of the forty-eight teachers, all are natives of the United States except one, who is a Canadian by birth. Forty-four are natives of New York State. They come predominantly, too, from native-born stock, only thirty-eight percent reporting foreign-born fathers, and twenty percent, foreign-born mothers. The foreign-born parentage is chiefly of English stock.

[1] C. E. Benson: The Output of Professional Schools for Teachers, Baltimore, 1922, p. 70.

EDUCATION.—It is from the point of view of general and professional education that the training-class teachers reveal the most significant shortcomings. Of forty-five reporting, twelve, or 24 percent, are not graduates of standard high schools, and eight of these attended high school only three years or less. Forty-three of the forty-eight, however, are graduates of normal schools, and all but one of these are products of the State normal schools of New York, the three schools at Oneonta, Geneseo, and Cortland accounting in all for twenty-four or one-half of the entire group. Only nine have graduated since 1897, hence the group as a whole represents the normal-school training of a quarter of a century or more ago. Seventeen have attended college, most of them for brief periods only—usually summer sessions. Three hold A. B. degrees, but only one of these is from a recognized institution. One has the B. Pd. degree from Syracuse University. It will be noted that an overwhelming majority of the training-class teachers would be unable to qualify for teaching appointments in high schools that meet the standards of the various accrediting agencies. They are, indeed, in point of their educational qualifications, far below their colleagues in the academic departments of the high schools. And yet they are preparing for a most difficult branch of the teaching service senior and graduate students of these schools.

SPECIAL EQUIPMENT.—Another serious handicap of the training-class teachers is to be found in their lack of equipment either in experience or in training for the specialized work in which they are engaged. While 54 percent report that they were brought up in the open country, this is a smaller proportion than the percent of rural-school teachers coming from rural homes. Sixty-eight percent attended rural school, but nearly one-third of these for less than five years. While the median of total teaching experience is 20.5 years, fifteen out of forty-five report no rural-school experience, and seven of the others had taught in such schools for only two years or less. Perhaps even more unfortunate (in view of the importance of the earlier grades in rural-school teaching) is the fact that fewer than one-half of the training-class teachers report that they have had actual experience in teaching the first four grades. In fact, a large part of the teaching that one-half these teachers were actually en-

gaged in during their long service prior to their training-class appointment was concerned primarily with high-school pupils and high-school problems.

As to the equipment for their specialized work that might be furnished by professional training, these teachers are in an even worse condition. Of forty-three teachers reporting, only thirteen state that they have taken courses in rural education, rural sociology, or agriculture. While twenty-five have attended summer sessions during at least one of the past three years, it would seem that the specific problems concerning their field have not as a rule occupied their attention during their periods of summer study.

Salaries, Other Income, and Living Expenses.—The significant facts regarding the salaries, outside earnings, and living expenses of the training-class teachers are shown in Tables 54, 55, and 56. A comparison with the corresponding tables for teachers of other groups (Tables 31, 32, and 36) shows that the training-class teachers rank with the rural high-school teachers and the village principals as to salary, that their living expenses are somewhat higher than those of the village elementary teachers, and that their outside earnings are on the whole higher than in the case of any other group except the village principals.

Responsibility for Support of Dependents.—Approximately 40 percent of the training-class teachers are wholly or partly responsible for the support of others. Comparison with Tables 38 and 39 bears out the hypothesis that the unmarried women in the teaching service who have passed the age of thirty are much more likely to have others dependent upon them than are the teachers in the less mature age-groups. The median estimated expenditure among the training-class teachers for the support of dependents is $275 a year.

Savings and Insurance.—As a group a much larger proportion of the training-class teachers report savings than in the case of the rural-school teachers whose reports are summarized in Table 40. Only four of the 43 teachers giving data regarding this item state that they saved nothing during the year 1920–21. The remaining 39 saved varying amounts up to $1,000 (reported by one teacher). The median savings of those reporting is $287.50—the highest median among all of the groups for which we have comparable data.

The proportion carrying life insurance is somewhat higher among the training-class teachers (36.4%) than among any of the groups referred to in Table 41, except the village principals.

TABLE 54.—DISTRIBUTION OF TRAINING-CLASS TEACHERS AS TO SALARY, 1920–21

| Salary | Number | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| No report | 2 | 4 |
| Below $1,000 | .. | .. |
| $1,000–1,049 | 4 | 8 |
| 1,050–1,099 | 2 | 4 |
| 1,100–1,149 | 10 | 20 |
| 1,150–1,199 | .. | .. |
| 1,200–1,249 | 11 | 22 |
| 1,250–1,299 | .. | .. |
| 1,300–1,349 | 9 | 18 |
| 1,350–1,399 | 2 | 4 |
| 1,400–1,449 | 6 | 12 |
| 1,450–1,499 | .. | .. |
| 1,500–1,549 | 2 | 4 |
| 1,550–1,599 | .. | .. |
| 1,600–1,649 | 2 | 4 |
| | 50 | |
| Median salary | | $1,236.36 |

TABLE 55.—DISTRIBUTION OF TRAINING-CLASS TEACHERS AS TO OUTSIDE EARNINGS AND OTHER INCOME

| Amount | Number | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| No report | 11 | 22 |
| $0–$24.99 | 20 | 40 |
| 25.00– 49.99 | 3 | 6 |
| 50.00– 74.99 | 1 | 2 |
| 75.00– 99.99 | 1 | 2 |
| 100.00–124.99 | 3 | 6 |
| 125.00–149.99 | 2 | 4 |
| 150.00–174.99 | 2 | 4 |
| 175.00–199.99 | 1 | 2 |
| 200.00–224.99 | 2 | 4 |
| 225.00–249.99 | 1 | 2 |
| 250.00–274.99 | .. | .. |
| 275.00–299.99 | .. | .. |
| 300.00–324.99 | .. | .. |
| 325.00–349.99 | .. | .. |
| 350.00–374.99 | .. | .. |
| 375.00–399.99 | .. | .. |
| 400.00–424.99 | 1 | 2 |
| 425.00–449.99 | .. | .. |
| 450.00–474.99 | .. | .. |
| 475.00–499.99 | .. | .. |
| 500.00–524.99 | 1 | 2 |
| 3,500.00 | 1 | 2 |
| | 50 | |
| Median of those reporting | | $25.00 |

TABLE 56.—DISTRIBUTION OF TRAINING-CLASS TEACHERS AS TO LIVING EXPENSES[1]

| Average monthly expenses | Cases | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| No report | 11 | 22 |
| $10.00–$14.99 | .. | .. |
| 15.00– 19.99 | 1 | 2 |
| 20.00– 24.99 | 2 | 4 |
| 25.00– 29.99 | 2 | 4 |
| 30.00– 34.99 | 4 | 8 |
| 35.00– 39.99 | 1 | 2 |
| 40.00– 44.99 | 7 | 14 |
| 45.00– 49.99 | 1 | 2 |
| 50.00– 54.99 | 8 | 16 |
| 55.00– 59.99 | 4 | 8 |
| 60.00– 64.99 | 4 | 8 |
| 65.00– 69.99 | 1 | 2 |
| 70.00– 74.99 | 1 | 2 |
| 75.00– 79.99 | .. | .. |
| 80.00– 84.99 | .. | .. |
| 85.00– 89.99 | .. | .. |
| 90.00– 94.99 | 2 | 4 |
| 95.00– 99.99 | .. | .. |
| 100.00 | 1 | 2 |
| | 50 | |
| Median of those reporting | | $50.31 |

*Total living expenses per year*

| Yearly expenses | Cases | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| No report | 9 | 18 |
| Under $200 | 1 | 2 |
| $200.00– $299.99 | .. | .. |
| 300.00– 399.99 | 4 | 8 |
| 400.00– 499.99 | 3 | 6 |
| 500.00– 599.99 | 5 | 10 |
| 600.00– 699.99 | 8 | 16 |
| 700.00– 799.99 | 3 | 6 |
| 800.00– 899.99 | 3 | 6 |
| 900.00– 999.99 | 2 | 4 |
| 1,000.00–1,099.99 | 6 | 12 |
| 1,100.00–1,199.99 | 3 | 6 |
| 1,200.00–1,299.99 | 1 | 2 |
| 1,300.00–1,399.99 | .. | .. |
| 1,400.00–1,499.99 | 1 | 2 |
| 1,500 | 1 | 2 |
| | 50 | |
| Median of those reporting | | $693.75 |

[1] Board, lodging, laundry, and transportation.

THE TRAINING-CLASS TEACHERS AS SEEN BY THE VISITORS.—The following excerpts from the reports of the visits made to seventeen of the training classes may serve to add concreteness and vividness to the picture of the training-class teacher that one may construct from the statistical summaries just presented:

"Quiet, strong personality, pleasing but not developed; has quality of good leader but she doesn't seem free; well-poised."

"A 'schoolma'm' of the old type, . . . exacting, 'fussy,' conscientious to a fault, narrow, mechanical, but well-meaning. I judge she has not read an up-to-date psychology, sociology, or method book. She had never heard of the 'Elementary School Journal.'

"She is anxious to fit herself for training-class work and feels she ought to join the Grange but thinks she hasn't time to give to it. The girls of the class looked unhappy. Only twice during the day was there a smile. There was no working together, no consultation. Life is a serious matter under this teacher . . . and the 'Regents'.'"

"Charming woman; a born leader, aggressive, optimistic, progressive (in everything but methods of teaching), a missionary spirit. She has brought up five children (all boys). Three enlisted and went to France early in the war. Two are now in college. She looks to be about thirty-five but must be much older as she is a grandmother. She teaches an Americanization class of foreign women and is active in all community affairs."

"A kindly, refined woman who is thoroughly interested in teaching and in her girls but she lacks initiative and vision. She is probably doing her work exactly as she did 20 years ago. She does not seem to realize that she should be responsible in following up her graduates or in interesting larger groups of girls to go into the training class. She is very unhappy over the lack of sympathy for the training class shown by the superintendent, principal, and grade teacher. Miss X does not even know the name of the training class teacher in another center three miles away."

"Good personality and poise. I believe Miss Y is a very capable woman. She was not anxious for me to visit her work and tried to 'switch me off' to something else, I felt. I believe she is a capable woman. She plans to attend Teachers College this summer."

"Miss R is a young woman with a pleasing personality. . . . She was systematic about her work,—no time was wasted. She was inclined to be sarcastic, I think."

"Good leader. Pleasant woman of 45 to 55. I believe she is a woman that would grow, but she is very much of a 'drill' teacher and it would be hard for her to do differently, no doubt. She is well liked in the town, I believe. I spent Sunday here and talked with several people. A good worker . . . I was told that she was always first at school."

"Good personality. Not attractively dressed and for that reason lacked the poise she might have had. A woman of worth, though . . . that is the impression she gave me."

"Lovely woman. Not so strong physically but loved by the teachers, students, and people of the town."

"Fine social qualities . . . meets people easily, is able to lead to the limit of her knowledge."

"No evidence of leadership, pleasant address. At home with the Regents' questions."

"Not forceful nor enthusiastic. Poise is placidity from lack of initiative. No evidence of leadership."

"Pleasing personality. Leadership would be strong if she were well. Has serious nervous trouble. Well-poised, has work well organized and mastered for passing the examinations."

"A charming personality . . . poise . . . leadership . . . truly cultured. Much that was fine was reflected in her students. Leaving the work this year."

"The type of capable teacher one often finds in upper-grade work, with a pleasant, friendly way of handling her class. She has a good personality and poise, with capabilities for leadership, I surmise, that have not been called into play by the type of work in vogue. I should say that she has the intelligence to understand, and ability to put in force, any up-to-date ideas suggested to her."

"A well-meaning woman of the voluble, inconsequent type. She says that her classes always pass well but I don't see how. Lessons are 'question-and-answer' type, frequently illustrated by personal experiences that illuminate nothing but private affairs. There is an occasional reference to children and what should be taught them, but this is impelled seemingly by the syllabus and not by any interest in children. The work is on a low eighth-grade level of an old type 'hearing-lessons' form."

"A pleasant, intelligent, well-meaning woman of fine spirit, who means to do an honest piece of work but who has little vision or push and little idea of what a rural school really should be. The Regents examinations and the State syllabus dominate her whole outlook. There is a fine spirit between her and the girls."

### (D) The Training-Class Curriculum

The training-class curriculum is outlined in Section 186 of the Regents Rules, and is modified but little by the training class teachers. Its essential features are: (1) a review of the basic studies of the elementary school, involving work in arithmetic, language and grammar, geography, American history, civics, drawing, and nature study with some reference to agriculture; (2) a special study of methods of teaching reading, especially in the primary grades; (3) a brief course in the use of the library; (4) the professional subjects—psychology, school management, and school law; and (5) practical training in the art of teaching, involving both observation and class teaching.

Content of Courses.—The content of the subjects taught is indicated fairly faithfully by the basic textbooks used. The names of the textbooks most frequently used and the frequency with which each is found in the training classes are shown in the following summary:

TABLE 57.—PRINCIPAL TEXTBOOKS USED IN THE TRAINING CLASSES, 1920–21

| Psychology | Frequency |
|---|---|
| Dexter and Garlick | 31 |
| Halleck | 13 |
| School Management | |
| Bagley | 24 |
| White | 14 |
| Seeley | 11 |
| School Law | |
| Finegan | 43 |
| Library Course | |
| State Syllabus | 14 |
| No text | 10 |
| Geography | |
| Brigham and McFarlane | 24 |
| Tarr and McMurry | 10 |
| Language and Grammar | |
| No text | 14 |
| Pearson and Kirchwey | 12 |
| Hygiene | |
| Overton | 17 |
| Davison | 8 |
| Methods of Reading | |
| Johnson | 24 |
| Klapper | 8 |
| Arithmetic | |
| Milne (Standard) | 37 |
| Wentworth and Smith | 6 |
| Nature Study and Agriculture | |
| Leaflets | 23 |
| Goff and Main | 6 |
| Drawing | |
| No text | 34 |
| Prang | 5 |
| Syllabus | 3 |
| Civics | |
| Boynton | 15 |
| No text | 12 |
| History | |
| Montgomery | 13 |
| Hart | 11 |
| Beard and Bagley | 7 |

In connection with the textbooks named in this list, two facts are of outstanding importance. In the first place, the subject-matter texts (arithmetic, geography, history, etc.) are books that are primarily intended for elementary-school pupils. The high-school seniors and graduates enrolled in the training classes, then, spend a large part of their time in reviewing this elementary subject-matter, apparently on the level that the elementary grades represent. In the second place, the five "professional" texts listed under the first

and second headings represent old books in a field that has been marked by a veritable ferment of recent growth. The first book mentioned, for example, was published in 1898; the second in 1897; the third in 1907; the fourth in 1894; and the fifth in 1903. While it is likely that some changes have been made in these textbooks since their initial publication, the fact remains that they are still essentially books of an earlier generation.

Observation.—Observation and practice-teaching most frequently extend over the greater part of the school year, the median period being 36.55 weeks. Observation is confined almost exclusively to the graded elementary schools of the communities in which the training classes are located. Only 27 of the 48 classes from which information was obtained report that some classwork is observed in rural schools, and even in these classes the amount of such observation in the aggregate is almost negligible: 11 report one visit during the year; 11, two visits; and five, three visits.

The value of the observational work in the local graded schools will depend obviously upon the efficiency of the teaching. In the lack of an extended study of this teaching, some indication of the general condition of the local schools may be furnished by the proportion of normal-school graduates in their teaching personnel. Forty-five of the training class teachers report on this item, with the following results:

Table 58.—Percent of Normal-school Graduates among Teachers of Graded Schools in Training-Class Centers

| Percent | Number of training classes reporting each |
|---|---|
| No report | 5 |
| 0 | 5 |
| 12½ | 3 |
| 25 | .. |
| 33⅓ | 4 |
| 37½ | .. |
| 40 | .. |
| 50 | 9 |
| 60 | 1 |
| 66⅔ | 3 |
| 75 | 5 |
| 87½ | 3 |
| 90 | 5 |
| 100 | 7 |
| | 50 |
| Median of those reporting | 63.3% |

The training-class teachers report that the methods commonly employed to make observation profitable are preliminary conferences, written outlines as guides to observation, written reports of work observed, and class discussion.

The findings of the visitors relative to the observational exercises brought out the facts: (1) that the work in most cases is distributed throughout the year, occupying in all from 70 to 80 class periods of from 20 to 40 minutes each in duration; (2) that the observation is distributed among the elementary grades, but with the greater emphasis upon the work of the primary grades; (3) that the students' written reports of the observations indicated more attention to the routine factors of class management than to either the technique or the subject-matter of instruction; and (4) that very little observation was carried on in rural schools.

Practice-Teaching.—Opportunities for practice-teaching seem to be even more inadequate than are the opportunities to observe good teaching. In 34 of the 48 classes reporting, practice was limited to two weeks of five class periods a week, or ten class periods in all. In 72 percent of the cases the class period ranged from 20 to 30 minutes; hence the total amount of practice in at least two-thirds of the classes *does not exceed six clock hours*. Ninety clock hours is a moderate requirement in a good normal school.

In three cases only out of the 48 reporting was provision made for practice-teaching under rural-school conditions: in two of these instances this practice was limited to *one day;* in the third instance seven days of rural practice were afforded.

The reasons advanced by the training-class teachers for the lack of rural school practice are in themselves clear evidence of the inadequacy of the training-class system:

| Reason | Times mentioned |
|---|---|
| Rural schools inconvenient | 21 |
| No time | 9 |
| No transportation | 6 |
| Impracticable | 6 |
| Total | 42 |
| No reply | 8 |

That there is "no time" for what should be the central feature of the training curriculum seems due in part to the fact that many of the training-class students are not exclusively engaged in preparing themselves for teaching, but are carrying other high-school subjects at the same time. To break into their non-professional programs would probably be inconvenient. That rural schools are not directly at one's door is essentially a part of the rural-school situation: in the very nature of the case such schools will be remote and outlying. In this age of motor transportation, however, this should not be an insuperable obstacle.

The practice-teaching in the local graded schools is in most cases under the direct charge of the teacher in whose room the work is done. In all but two cases among those reported, lesson-plans are required in advance from the student-teacher; as a rule, however, these plans seem to be supervised, not by the training teacher, but rather by the room-teacher whose qualifications for this and other important features of the supervision of student-teachers are in no way safeguarded by the regulations of the training-class system.

There is little effort to introduce the student by graded steps into the more difficult types of teaching. Of the 48 training-class teachers who furnished information, four stated that they attempted to have the students begin with the simpler teaching exercises and proceed to the more complicated. Twenty-four report that the students do some teaching with small groups of pupils as well as with the regular class-units.

There is a natural tendency to have the training-class students look after the "substitute" teaching that is necessary in the local school system. This custom was reported in 38 classes. In the large majority of these cases, the substitute teaching is done without pay; in seven cases the student teacher receives the regular teacher's salary when on a substitute assignment; in one case, two-thirds of the salary; in two cases, a *per diem* of $4.50; and in one case, a *per diem* of $3.00. The value of such work to the student-teacher will obviously depend upon the kind and amount of supervision that is given. It would seem that the student-teacher as a rule receives little supervision when engaged as a substitute. It is perhaps not unfortunate, then, that substitute-teaching by the

student-teachers, while generally looked upon with favor,[1] is for lack of opportunity not frequently indulged in.[2]

The training-class teachers themselves are not unmindful of the weakness of the system in respect to its provisions for practice-teaching. Their criticisms are summarized in the following tabulation:

TABLE 59.—WEAKNESSES IN THE PRESENT PLAN OF OBSERVATION AND PRACTICE-TEACHING AS SEEN BY THE TRAINING-CLASS TEACHERS

| Criticism | Times mentioned |
|---|---|
| No report | 8 |
| Too little rural-school practice | 27 |
| Too little rural-school observation | 17 |
| Time for practice too short | 5 |
| Observation of poor teaching | 4 |
| Insufficient supervision | 4 |
| Lack of responsibility | 3 |
| Indefinite periods for practice and observation | 2 |
| Too few problems in discipline | 2 |
| Unwillingness of grade teachers to coöperate | 2 |
| Not enough training-class students high school graduates | 2 |
| Too much observation | 2 |
| Observation monotonous | 1 |
| Poor preparation of training-class teacher | 1 |
| Practice in only one subject | 1 |
| Ungraded practice | 1 |
| Too little follow-up work | 1 |
| Inflexible curriculum | 1 |
| No notice of good observation opportunities | 1 |
| | 85 |
| Number of training-class teachers making criticisms | 43 |

The following excerpts are taken from the visitors' reports concerning the practice teaching as they observed it:

"Too limited in quantity and range. Not closely supervised by the training teacher."

"There should be rural observation and practice. Some of the room teachers who aid the practice students are not normal school graduates."

"Grade teachers have no particular interest or sympathy with the practice work."

[1] This type of practice is considered beneficial by 31 of the training-class teachers; 16 took the opposite view.

[2] In 31 classes, no substitute-teaching was done in 1920–21, and in only six classes was there more than five student-days of such teaching.

"The students' ideas in practice work seem not so much to understand the art of teaching as to memorize facts and outlines to be used in teaching."

"Not enough educational principles behind the criticisms given. Standards are exceedingly bookish and somewhat trivial."

"Groups of children are never taken to the training room. I doubt if the work of students is criticized in detail."

"The school is too small to offer practice teaching facilities."

"The practice teaching is one of the weakest points in the system. There should be more group teaching, more rural teaching, and better planning."

Adaptation of the Training-class Curriculum to Rural-School Needs.—The paucity of specific efforts to adapt the curriculum to the specific needs of rural-school teaching is perhaps sufficiently indicated by the failure of the training classes generally to provide either observation or practice-teaching under rural-school conditions. There are, however, numerous other evidences that the training-class teachers either are too fully occupied with an overloaded teaching program or themselves too unfamiliar with the pressing needs of the rural schools to work out a thoroughgoing articulation of their instruction and training with the needs of the rural service. Nearly all of the visitors who studied the actual work of the training-classes gave it as their judgment that the work in general was not well adapted to its purpose and that the training-class teachers as a group have a very limited conception of the possibilities. The visitors' reports regarding what these teachers believed that they were doing to meet the peculiar needs of the rural-school service are typically represented by the following:

"In connection with the study of physiology the following questions were asked: 'What kind of stoves do you expect to find in your school?' 'How should you ventilate?' 'How can you manage to get a warm lunch?' 'How can you get a lunch equipment?' Etc."

"Teach them as for a city school and then they can cut the recitation short as they'll have to do in the country."

"Try to take the girl out to visit the school she is to teach. Try to cover rural school needs in rural school management."

"A lesson on the rural school library. The students were urged to secure a free traveling library."

"Nature study, agriculture and project work meet the needs of the rural school."

"Try to use reference material bearing on rural problems, e. g., clippings concerning community work."

"The superintendent has the students practice making rural school programs."

A few of the training-class teachers made suggestions for the improvement of the curriculum from this point of view; typical suggestions are quoted below:

"Give more time to school law, geography, nature study, drawing, practice-teaching, primary methods, and psychology."

"Give less time to English, history, and school law."

"Physical geography should be required as an entrance subject rather than physics."

"Rural sociology should be added as the students go back to the country without any constructive ideas."

"Less stress should be placed upon preparation for examinations."

"Nature study and agriculture should be emphasized; also home-making problems."

### (E) Methods of Teaching in the Training Classes

The quality of instruction which characterizes professional courses is obviously an important factor in determining the way in which the student will later teach. This does not mean that the methods employed with these somewhat mature students should be identical with the methods that they themselves will later use, although occasionally it is doubtless well to present materials very much as they would be presented on the lower school levels. At all times, however, the teaching as far as possible should be exemplary in the sense that the methods employed are well adapted to their purpose and carried out with skill and insight.

It is clear from the reports of the visitors that many of the training-class teachers are "good" teachers from this point of view. They have doubtless been chosen in large part because of their skillful mastery of the work of the classroom, and this mastery may be frankly admitted to compensate in some measure for their inadequate education and even for their failure to see the rural-school problem in its proper dimensions. If they give to their students something of their own enthusiasm and initiate them through their own example in the elements of their art, they are doing very much indeed. The important point is that, with better training, they could both do much more than this and do this better. There is also a larger representation of inadequate and especially very

formal and lifeless teaching than is consistent with good work in the rural schools for service in which the students are being prepared.

Lesson Types Emphasized.—The type of lesson most frequently reported by the training-class teachers as characterizing their own instruction is the textbook recitation; second in frequency comes the developmental exercise; and third in frequency, the drill lesson. The "lecture" is not a dominant method, although it is used sometimes in history and literature and more frequently in the strictly professional courses, such as psychology and school management.

A summary of the training-class teachers' reports on methods of instruction is given in the following table:

Table 60.—Types of Teaching Emphasized in Training-Class Instruction

| Type of lesson | No report | Drill | Recitation | Lecture | Development | Appreciation | Total reports | Repeated reports | Number of lessons when more than one per report | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Courses | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | 3 |
| Arithmetic | 2 | 31 | 8 | .. | 35 | .. | 76 | 26 | 20 | 3 |
| History | 3 | 5 | 38 | 14 | 7 | 8 | 75 | 25 | 25 | .. |
| Reading | 3 | 6 | 10 | 10 | 17 | 19 | 65 | 15 | 11 | 2 |
| Music | 40 | 5 | 3 | .. | 1 | 3 | 52 | 2 | 2 | .. |
| Geography | 4 | 9 | 35 | 6 | 15 | 2 | 71 | 21 | 17 | 2 |
| Grammar | 3 | 18 | 15 | .. | 28 | 7 | 71 | 21 | 17 | 2 |
| Psychology | 2 | 1 | 28 | 27 | 14 | 1 | 73 | 23 | 21 | 1 |
| School management | 3 | 2 | 27 | 29 | 5 | 0 | 66 | 16 | 16 | 0 |

Status of "Project" Work in the Training Classes.—The recent emphasis on the organization of the materials of instruction under large problems or "projects" finds an interesting expression in the reports of the training-class teachers. This does not mean, of course, that the "project method" as such is characteristic of the training-class work. While many of the topics listed as projects are doubtless taught through one or another of the older methods, the following tabulation testifies to a recognition by the training-class teachers of some of the important features of the newer developments in their art:

TABLE 61.—LIST OF PROJECTS DEVELOPED DURING THE YEAR, 1920–21

*History*

1 Study of slavery.
1 English colonial government.
1 Lincoln.
1 Indian life.
2 Pilgrims.
1 Home life, 1620–1920.
1 Debate.
1 Henry Hudson.
1 Local history.
1 National government organization.
1 Justification of the American Revolution.
1 French adjustments to post-war conditions.

*Geography*

2 Industry charts with product samples and pictures showing growth and manufacture.
2 Industrial map of New York State.
2 New York State geography.
1 Playgrounds of New York State.
1 Map drawing.
1 Transportation.
1 Problem questions in geography.
1 Seeing the United States through the "mind's eye."
1 Manufacturing methods of cotton, rubber, lumber.
1 Where shall we spend the winter—Florida? California?
1 Geography booklet on a country or industry.
1 Travel project in South America.

*English*

5 Letter writing.
1 Books that should be in the average boy's library.
1 Use of slang.
1 Thrift.
1 Birds of Killingworth.
1 Selection and adaptation of literature.
1 Development of the short story.
1 Games in language.
6 Love and pride for the English language.
1 Memorization of choice bits of literature.
1 Debate.
1 Making of books.
2 Plays (writing)
1 Making of notebooks.

*Arithmetic*

1 Stocks and bonds.
1 Bank discount.
1 Drill charts

*Dramatization and Occasion Programs*

1 Christmas programs for rural schools.
1 School law and school meetings. Election of superintendent.
2 General dramatization.
1 Memorial day program.

TABLE 61.—(*Continued*)

*Physiology and Nature Study*

1 My tree the year round.
1 Stories for use in Primary Grades.
1 Birds of Northern New York.
1 Window boxes in school room.
1 Securing pamphlets and materials.
1 Birds of the vicinity.
1 Hatching of butterflies.
1 Developing an interest in out-of-doors.

*School Management and Hygiene*

1 The country day school.
1 School and room management.
1 Testing rooms in building for hygienic requirements.
1 Improvement of school surroundings.
1 Source of a teacher's power to discipline.
1 Difference between government and discipline.
1 Schoolroom heating and ventilation.
1 Health instruction.

*Art Projects*

1 Furnishing toy house.
1 Christmas tree toys and calendars.
1 Bird calendars.
1 Tree mounts.
2 Busy work for lower grades.
3 Posters.

*Domestic Science projects*

1 Food project.
1 Setting the table.
4 Sewing.
1 Clothes.
2 Home making.
1 Weaving.
2 Serving meals.
1 Bought cloth and made middy blouses to wear class night.
1 Made teapot tiles, shoe trees and holders.

*Agriculture*

1 Farm instruction.
3 Gardening.
1 Calf project.
1 Raising plants by the use of hotbed and cold frame.
1 Corn project.
1 Bean project.
1 Grafting project.
1 Dairy project.
1 Seed testing (corn, radishes, etc.).
1 Poultry project.

*Miscellaneous*

1 Silk industry.
1 Visit and discussion of a railroad being built ten miles away.
1 Santa Claus.
2 None.
9 No report.

Use of Tests and Scales in the Training Classes.—Closely associated with the project method as a recent development in teaching is the use of tests and scales for determining the capacities of pupils and for measuring their progress in the school subjects. From the following tabulation it is clear that the training classes as yet have given little attention to this movement:

Table 62.—Tests and Scales Used or Discussed in the Training Classes

| Tests | Cases |
|---|---|
| No report | 21 |
| None | 9 |
| Arithmetic | |
| Courtis | 5 |
| Rice | 1 |
| Stone | 1 |
| Studebaker | 1 |
| Woody-McCall | 1 |
| Not specified | 3 |
| Spelling | |
| Ayres | 3 |
| Not specified | 1 |
| Intelligence | |
| Binet-Simon | 3 |
| Haggerty | 1 |
| Not specified | 2 |
| Reading | |
| Thorndike-McCall | 2 |
| Adams | 1 |
| Burgess (silent) | 1 |
| Lewis and Rowland (silent) | 1 |
| Standard | 1 |
| Not specified | 1 |
| History | |
| Harlan | 1 |
| Penmanship | |
| Ayres | 4 |
| Those using more than one test: | |
| 2 tests reported by 10 teachers | |
| 3 " " " 2 " | |

Visitors' Reports on Instruction.—Comments of the visitors on the instruction that they observed emphasize particularly the formal and lifeless character of the work found in some of the classes. While this is clearly due in part to the influence of the Regents examinations, it is reasonable to believe that the situation is also affected by the crowded program of studies, the distractions of non-professional courses carried at the same time by training-class students, and the feeling of hopelessness that must often overtake

a teacher whose duties cover so wide a field and involve so many diverse activities. It is in the light of these handicaps that one should consider the following criticisms of the training-class instruction as seen by the visitors:

"The lessons were of a drill type. The class work was conducted by a student. This plan was used to get the poorer students to make careful preparation. The lesson was lacking in interest and enthusiasm."

"The students had made excellent preparation. They had a comprehensive understanding of the subject. The lesson in English dealt primarily with material and method of poem study in the grades. The class was drilling on methods questions in arithmetic as found in the regents examinations. The lesson consisted of problem solving in which problems were put in good form on the board."

Observation Lesson in 6th Grade Oral Language. "Children had selected the stories and rewritten them for telling. They were well chosen but the telling was formal and lacked expression. The stories had been memorized."

"She excelled as a drillmaster. Her pupils will *pass*."

"They were memorizing the answers to regents questions."

"Much of the work was memorizing facts."

"The study is not directed."

"One drill lesson was motivated by pupils leaving off 'head'."

"Miss X is a good instructor but does not adapt the course to the needs of rural schools."

"The assignments are arbitrary—a large number of problems from the text. Questions were poor."

"Both teacher and pupils were formal. The lessons dragged and were dull and uninteresting."

"The geography lessons emphasizes subject matter rather than method."

"The lesson lacked purpose."

"An attempt to use games in teaching arithmetic."

"The students wrote answers to the regents questions and read them to the teacher, without comment."

"The teacher dictated a long, wordy rule 'on the steps of an explanation.' The dictionary drill lesson was as elementary as 3d and 4th grade work."

"There is no reason to give 'mental' work as that is not a part of the regents examination."

"The compositions were evidently copied from three different sources. The students made no comment about each other's work."

"It is almost unbelievable that work can be so poor. In my entire experience of visiting schools of all kinds I have never seen such rigid, formal work. I am surprised that the work in the rural schools that I surveyed is as good as it is."

"It was a good type of such a lesson (longitude and time) successfully done."

"The topical method was used in geography."

"The newer books on methods were on the shelves but they had not modernized the teacher's methods."

"There was a fine spirit in all the work but it was most leisurely,—probably not more than 20 minutes work was done in any 40-minute period."

"The instruction does not inspire the girls to desire to teach permanently, I found from conversation with them."

"The lesson was taught to prepare for regents."

"It was a good illustration of the lock step of the regents system. The assignment was, 'Take the next 15 pages'."

"All work was drill work with no effort for motivation."

"The instruction is on a low eighth grade basis. There was attention but no interest, no stimulation for thought, no definite points,—a most desultory day. The teacher seemingly does not know how to prepare or present a lesson though she had written some questions which she used in the first class."

"The physical exercises were given by a student who gave commands leisurely which were lifelessly obeyed."

"Miss X knows subject-matter unusually well, has good ideas, but feels she has not the time to get away from the formal type of work."

"Miss Y is doing very good work and bringing in a good deal of live material."

"One half the recitation period was wasted time."

"Miss Z was the only instructor that referred to rural schools in her teaching during my week of visitation. Both teacher and students seemed to have but one motive,—to pass the examinations."

"Too much drill work even when they are not preparing for examination. Instruction lacks vitality."

## (F) Non-Professional Work Carried by Training-Class Students and Instructors

One of the most serious handicaps of the training-class system lies in the fact that nearly one half of the students enrolled are not giving themselves exclusively to professional work. In only three classes of the 48 reporting are all the students free from other responsibilities. The facts are shown in the two following tables:

Table 63.—Number of Training-Class Students Carrying Other Subjects

| No. of classes reporting extra subjects | Number of students in each class carrying extra subjects | Total number of students involved |
|---|---|---|
| No report | 2 | .. |
| None | 3 | .. |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2 | 7 | 14 |
| 3 | 3 | 9 |
| 4 | 10 | 40 |
| 5 | 4 | 20 |
| 6 | 2 | 12 |
| 7 | 7 | 49 |
| 8 | 3 | 24 |
| 9 | 4 | 36 |
| 10 | 1 | 10 |
| 11 | 3 | 33 |
| | 50 | 248 |

TABLE 64.—EXTRA SUBJECTS CARRIED

| Subjects | Cases |
|---|---|
| English III | 6 |
| English IV | 2 |
| English Grammar | 1 |
| Geometry | 25 |
| Intermediate Algebra | 5 |
| American History | 26 |
| Ancient History | 2 |
| Modern History | 2 |
| History B | 1 |
| English History | 1 |
| Latin II | 4 |
| Latin III | 1 |
| Cicero | 1 |
| Physics | 20 |
| Chemistry | 9 |
| French I | 1 |
| French II | 16 |
| French III | 1 |
| Spanish II | 2 |
| American and English Literature | 1 |
| Drawing | 9 |
| Elementary Representation | 2 |
| Music | 2 |
| Mechanical Drawing | 1 |
| Sewing | 1 |
| Physical Geography | 7 |
| Commercial Geography | 2 |
| Civics | 7 |
| Biology | 2 |
| Business Writing | 2 |
| Physical Training | 1 |
| Bookkeeping | 1 |

Those mentioning more than one subject

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 2 | subjects mentioned | 11 | times |
| 3 | " " | 10 | " |
| 4 | " " | 8 | " |
| 5 | " " | 7 | " |
| 6 | " " | 2 | " |
| 7 | " " | 2 | " |
| 8 | " " | 2 | " |

Perhaps even more significant is the fact that 18 of the 48 training-class teachers, or 37.5 percent, have other high-school duties in addition to their responsibilities for the conduct of their training classes, as shown in Table 65:

TABLE 65.—EXTRA TEACHING AND OTHER HIGH-SCHOOL DUTIES ASSIGNED TO TRAINING-CLASS TEACHERS

| Duties | Cases |
|---|---|
| Teaching high-school American history | 4 |
| " " " drawing | 4 |
| English I | 3 |
| Supervising study hall | 2 |
| Teaching high school subjects (unspecified) | 2 |
| Teaching music | 2 |
| Assistant principal grade building | 1 |
| Principal grammar school | 1 |
| Supervision of geography | 1 |
| Teaching commercial geography | 1 |
| Teaching high-school civics | 1 |
| Secretary to principal | 1 |
| Organizing commencement work | 1 |
| Physics | 1 |
| Aiding in high-school registration | 1 |
| Teaching night-school writing class | 1 |

Number of those reporting more than one:

2 teachers report 6 extra duties
7 " " 2 " "

Twenty-three of the training-class teachers report that these and other disturbing or distracting influences interfere significantly with the work of the training classes. This situation is to be expected where serious professional study, instead of being recognized as a distinct and specific end in itself, is rather looked upon as an ingredient of a more general program.

### (G) QUARTERS AND EQUIPMENT OF THE TRAINING CLASSES

Approximately one-half of the training classes are housed in high-school buildings. This plan has both advantages and disadvantages. The contacts with high-school teachers, easy access to library and laboratories, and the saving of time in attending other high-school classes (where such attendance is involved in the training-class organization) are among the advantages; but these are somewhat offset by the benefits that come when the training-class is housed in an elementary-school building where there is easy access to the classrooms for obervation and practice-teaching, and where there are close contacts with elementary-school teachers and pupils. Ten of the classes have their quarters in elementary-school buildings,

and eleven are in buildings that are used both for high-school and elementary purposes.

Forty-seven of the 48 classes reporting have their own libraries. These range from 20 to 225 volumes, with a median of 125. Thirteen of these libraries made no accessions during the year 1920–21; the average number of new books acquired during the year was seven; hence the training-class libraries can scarcely be looked upon as keeping fair pace with the growing literature in their field. Meagre library facilities, indeed, are among the most significant handicaps of the training-class system as compared with the normal schools and teachers' colleges.

Books on educational theory and practice are most frequently found in the training-class libraries. Relatively few report children's books as part of the equipment, although an acquaintance with children's literature is a most important asset to a rural-school teacher. Rural-life and rural-school problems fare but little better, eleven classes reporting no books whatsoever in these fields.

The equipment of the classrooms varies widely but in no case is it generous. Bookcases and globes are reported by nearly all of the classes. Sets of maps are available in 36 cases. Twenty-six of the classes are supplied with reading tables; 25 have either hektographs or mimeographs; 22 have simple microscopes or magnifying glasses; 17 have sand-tables; 10 have their own stereopticons and slides, and three more use a stereopticon in possession of the high school; 12 have work-tables; and eight either own or have the use of victrolas; seven have magnets and the same number aquaria. On the other hand, only one of the classes is supplied with a typewriter, one with benches and tools, and one with a compound microscope. The equipment of the best is very meagre in comparison with that of even a poorly equipped normal school; the quarters of an average training class are scarcely so well off as an elementary classroom in a progressive city school system.

The above data are taken from the reports of the training-class teachers. The visitors' reports confirm the impression that the equipment is inadequate, although it should be noted that in the towns and cities having public libraries the deficiencies in the library equipment of the training classes were in every case some-

what counterbalanced by the coöperation of the public-library authorities in maintaining a shelf or a department of educational books.

### (H) Services of the Training-Class Teachers to Their Graduates and to the Rural Communities

With their heavy load of teaching it is scarcely to be expected that the training-class teachers will be able to keep in close touch with their graduates through visiting their schools, or that they will have very much time even for correspondence or for keeping a record of the work that their former students are doing in the field. It is worthy of note, however, that alumni records are kept by three-fourths of the teachers; that alumni organizations meeting once or twice during the year are reported for 11 classes; that 22 teachers report from one to ten visits to their graduates during the year 1920–21; that 11 make it a practice to send circular letters to their graduates (in all, 41 such letters were sent during the year); and that 14 addressed community meetings in the school districts where their former students were teaching.

In addition to these specific services for their graduates, many of the training-class teachers took an active part in general community activities. In 14 cases, for example, coöperation is reported with farmers' institutes, farm and home bureau associations, and granges; six teachers participated in the programs of parent teacher associations, and six in Junior Club meetings; while 20 had some part in county fairs and school exhibits.

### (I) The Supervision of the Training Classes

State Supervision.—The training-class specialist attached to the State Education Department visits each class about once a year. In 1920–21, 40 classes were visited once, one was visited twice, and one was not visited. In 24 cases, one day was spent in observing the classwork and in conference with the teacher; in 20 cases, a half-day; in two cases, an hour and one-half; and in one case, an hour. The visitors report that the work of the State specialist is "inspectional" rather than supervisory. This judgment is borne out by the following statements from the training-class

teachers concerning the suggestions and criticisms given during the specialist's visits:

TABLE 66.—SUGGESTIONS AND CRITICISMS GIVEN TRAINING-CLASS TEACHERS BY STATE SUPERVISOR

| Times mentioned | |
|---|---|
| 7 | No report |
| 8 | No criticisms or suggestions. |
| 10 | Made generally helpful observations and suggestions in geography, arithmetic, library, etc. |
| 6 | Urged more model training, less observation in grades. |
| 4 | Advised observing work in rural schools for one or two days in the year. |
| 3 | Recommended more library books. |
| 3 | Advised more observation work and better note-taking. |
| 3 | Suggested the use of certain texts. |
| 3 | Suggested better room and equipment. |
| 2 | Suggested new books in pedagogy. |
| 2 | Described some recitations he had heard. |
| 1 | Suggested new books in methods. |
| 1 | Criticized overrunning periods. |
| 1 | Urged more student teaching. |
| 1 | Suggested making geography more observational and practical. |
| 1 | Advised excluding girls with poor preparation. |
| 1 | Suggested outline for observation work. |
| 1 | Suggested more oral than written reports of observation. |
| 1 | Suggested more definite aims in observation and report. |
| 59 | |

SUPERVISION BY THE DISTRICT SUPERVISION.—Little direct supervision of the training classes is given by the district superintendents, although the reports from the teachers indicate that these officials keep in fairly close touch with the work of the classes and do many things to promote their efficiency. For example, 16 teachers state that the district superintendents give their students talks on rural-school problems and school management; 14 state that they give "helpful suggestions"; and 15, that they render material help in the placement of graduates. Only four teachers out of 47 reporting state that the district superintendent fails to give them assistance in some way.

SUPERVISION BY THE LOCAL SUPERINTENDENT AND THE LOCAL HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL.—The replies do not indicate that the local superintendent assumes in most cases more than general oversight of the training-class work. Only 21 teachers report on this

question, and of these 11 state that the superintendent renders no service whatsoever, while three say that he helps by "keeping hands off"! In only three cases is visitation of the training class by the local superintendent reported, and only one teacher refers to the superintendent's coöperation in the work of observation and practice-teaching.

The relationship of the high-school principal to the training class is much closer, although nearly one-sixth of the teachers report either an indifferent or a somewhat antagonistic attitude. Coöperation, interest, and helpful suggestions, on the other hand, are reported by 22 teachers. Class visitation by the principals is about as rare as in the case of the local superintendents.

### (J) Cost of Maintaining the Training Classes

State subsidies bear approximately 78 percent of the cost of maintaining the training classes; local appropriations (in addition to supplying quarters, heat, and light), 22 percent. The average State subsidy for each class is $1,309.72; the average local cash appropriation, $366.42; the average total, $1,676.14. These averages are based upon reports of 45 classes as to State subsidy and reports of 36 classes as to local appropriations. If these averages hold for the 50 classes, the total annual cost of maintenance, exclusive of quarters, heat, and light, is approximately $84,000.

The output of the training classes in 1921 was approximately 540; this excludes those who failed to secure certificates, and includes the number assumed to have graduated from the two classes that did not respond to the question-sheet. Approximately 25 percent of the students did not expect to teach, but this doubtless included some who were fairly certain that they would not pass the State examinations. Assuming that it included all of these, there still remain 15 percent of the graduates who probably did not enter the service in 1921–22; hence 459 may be taken as the maximal effective output of the classes for the year in question. The *per-capita* expenditure for each student entering the service, then, may be estimated at $183.00.

# CHAPTER VIII

# SUMMARY AND INTERPRETATIONS

## The Educational Handicaps of the Rural Child

THE educational handicaps of the rural child in respect to the buildings in which his school work must be done, the equipment of these buildings, the program of studies provided, and the administration and supervision of his school are treated in other sections of the Survey report. We are here concerned only with his teachers and their own educational qualifications for the difficult duties that they are called upon to discharge. The handicaps of the rural child from this point of view can be stated in several ways. Particularly significant are his chances in comparison with those of a city child of having a mature, experienced, and well-educated teacher.

First, as to the teacher's maturity, our data justify the inference that the child attending a one-teacher school has one chance in two of having a teacher who is less than 24 years old; he has one chance in four of having a teacher who is not yet old enough to vote; he also has one chance in four of having a teacher who has reached or passed the age of 30. A child in a typical second-class city of New York State has one chance in two of *not* having a teacher who is under 34 years of age; in a third-class city, a child has one chance in two of *not* having a teacher who has not passed the age of 29. The child in a typical village school fares almost as well; and even in a two-teacher school the chances are even that the child will have a teacher who has reached the age of 27.

As to the teacher's experience, the child attending a one-teacher school has one chance in five of coming under the instruction of a teacher who is just beginning his or her work; in the typical city school system the chances are in the ratio of one to ten—just half

the risk. The rural child in the one-teacher school has between one chance in five and one chance in six of having a teacher who has taught at least ten years; the chances that the teacher will have had ten years' experience or more are doubled in the third-class cities and more than doubled in the second-class cities.

As to education, the New York rural child attending a one-teacher school has one chance in twenty of having a teacher with "standard training,"—two years' attendance at a normal school or college, following graduation from a four-year high school; if he attends a two-teacher school, his chances are about doubled (2 in 20); in a village school his chances would be increased seven-fold (7 in 20); in a second-class city, the chances would be multiplied by twelve (12 in 20); and in a third-class city, they would be multiplied by sixteen (16 in 20).

### The Median or Typical Rural-school Teacher

Having in mind the variations presented in the tables, it may be helpful to combine the medians in a composite "picture" of the typical teacher in the typical rural school,—that is, the one-teacher school. Unless the variations are considered, such composite "types" are, of course, likely to be misleading.

The typical rural-school teacher in New York State is a woman between twenty-three and twenty-four years of age, and has been teaching between three and four years, having begun this work at the age of nineteen. She is a native-born New Yorker of native-born parents. She comes from a farmer's family, and is one of three or four children in the family. When she entered teaching, her family had an annual income of about $1,000. She attended an elementary rural school for eight years, and a neighboring high school for four years. During the latter part of her high-school course, she was a member of a teacher-training class, where she reviewed the common-school branches, studied the rudiments of psychology, school law, and school management, observed class-work twice a week for a year in the local elementary schools, made two or three visits to neighboring rural schools, and had ten days of practice-teaching in one of the grades of the local schools.

With this equipment she began her work in a one-teacher rural

school. She has had no additional education, either general or professional, since high-school graduation. During her period of teaching, she has read at most one professional book. She subscribes for a professional journal which appeals to her because of its simple, concrete suggestions and devices for teaching.

In her school she not only teaches, but does most, if not all, of the janitor's work. She sweeps the floor daily. She may do the scrubbing; in any case the floor of this typical teacher's school is scrubbed about twice a year. The outhouses are scrubbed once a year. She is on the playground with her pupils at recess time almost every day, and frequently takes part in the games. Neither she nor any of the pupils who remain through the school hour has a hot lunch.

She has a room by herself within a mile of the schoolhouse. This room is heated in winter. She is also free to use the living-room of the house and to entertain callers there. She is likely to assist the housewife in the work of the home to the extent of more than an hour a day. If she lives with her parents, she spends much more time in assisting with the housework. Unless her home is there, she does not often remain in the district over week-ends.

For her teaching during the year 1920–21 she received between $800 and $850, and she taught nine months. During the summer she is likely to live with her parents and she usually helps with the housework and the lighter farm work. Her necessary living expenses during the school year she estimates at somewhat less than $300, and she probably saved between $200 and $250 during the year in question. She has no one dependent upon her for support, either wholly or partially.

## Limitations and Advantages of the Training-Class System of Preparing Rural-School Teachers

The outstanding defects and limitations of the high-school teacher-training class as a principal agency for the professional education of rural-school teachers may be summarized as follows:

1. The professional curriculum must be covered in so brief a time that only a superficial preparation can be given.

2. The curriculum includes a wide range of studies all of which are taught by a single teacher. Thus one of the most serious handi-

caps of the rural schools is reproduced in the institution that prepares most of the rural-school teachers.

3. The training class, even if it be made up of fifth-year pupils (high-school graduates), is essentially of high-school grade. Almost inevitably it will reflect the standards and characteristics of the high-school of which it is a part. The prospective teachers, instead of having their associations with students more mature and further advanced than they are themselves, are kept on a plane representing lower levels of maturity and achievement. It is true that these prospective teachers are professionally concerned with children, but this does not mean that their professional study should be confined to the juvenile or even the adolescent level.

4. When professional preparation is organized as an incident to education of a non-professional type, the development of a thoroughgoing atmosphere of professional zeal and enthusiasm is a difficult task. The pressure of other interests and aims tends to distract the student from the work that should absorb him.

The above defects and handicaps are likely to characterize the training-class policy wherever it is found. The New York training class presents, with these, certain specific and in some cases remediable weaknesses of organization, administration, and curriculum to which reference should be made:

1. They are not organized in such a way that the professional work becomes the exclusive work of the pupil during the period of training. Such an organization is feasible, and exists in the training-class systems of certain other states, notably Minnesota.

2. They are not exclusively fifth-year or graduate classes. Four full years of basic high-school education is none too much to serve as a foundation for truly professional study. To curtail this general and liberal education by a full year or a half-year is an injustice not only to the student but also to the pupils of the school in which he or she will serve as a teacher.

3. The training-class teachers, while as a group thoroughly devoted to their important work, are as a group themselves undereducated and undertrained. Only a negligible proportion of them, indeed, meet the recognized standards for appointment to high-school teaching positions, and yet they are teaching pupils nearly

half of whom are high-school graduates and all of whom are receiving at the hands of these teachers their preparation for one of the most difficult and exacting fields of public-school service.

4. Most of the first-hand supervision and criticism of the practice-teaching is in the hands of the classroom teachers in the local schools. This work is admittedly one of the most important phases of pre-service professional education. To delegate it to teachers who are not only quite untrained for its responsibilities but also not subject to the criticism and direction of the training-class teacher would seem to be a most serious weakness in the organization of the work.

5. The failure to provide adequate facilities for observation and practice-teaching in neighboring rural schools is a defect even more serious in that such provisions could be made without an unreasonable expenditure of time and money, and are indeed an important feature of the training-class organization in many other states.

6. The training-class curriculum is especially weak in its failure to provide explicit instruction in the special problems of the rural-school teacher. One would expect, for example, even in a brief curriculum for such a teacher, a course in rural-life problems and a course in the management of rural schools, which is a quite different matter from the management of a graded elementary school.

7. The textbooks used in the professional courses are, as a rule, deplorably "out of date." The subject-matter courses are hasty and superficial "reviews" of elementary-school materials and fail to furnish the prospective teacher with that broad and rich knowledge of the elementary subjects that is essential if one is to do really constructive teaching even on the lowest educational levels.

8. The equipment of the training classes is apparently far below the standard that the needs of the service demand.

All this is far from saying that the New York training classes are without their elements of strength. They have done much to meet a real need, for they have given to a clear majority of the open-country teachers a training which, inadequate as it is, must be recognized as vastly better than no training at all. They recruit most of their pupils from the farms and send them back to serve the farm-

ing districts.[1] Their teachers render devoted service under a grueling program. Their product as a whole is more satisfactory to the people of the open country than is the small fraction of the normal school product that enters the rural service. It is largely to the credit of the New York training classes that the median age of the rural-school teachers of the state is higher and the average term of service longer than in any other state for which comparable information is available.

But it is not in the comparison with rural conditions in other states that the open-country people of New York are primarily interested. The competition of rural with rural is not significant: *it is the competition of rural with urban that is vital and fundamental.* As long as the high school training class remains the typical agency for the preparation of rural school teachers, no approximation to the urban standards of elementary education will be possible. The city teacher has long been required to have two years of training in a state or city normal school—institutions equipped and staffed as no high-school training class could possibly be. This two-year standard in New York state is already being advanced to three years, and there is a general conviction among students of the problem that the forces that have been pushing the standards of teaching upward will continue to operate until at least four years of a broadly conceived professional education beyond high-school graduation will be the accepted minimum for teachers in the city elementary schools.

Is it not clear that the high school training class as an institution has carried the rural teacher about as far as it can? The present system in New York, of course, could be improved; for the kind of work that it is now doing it could conceivably be perfected. But even its perfection would be but a makeshift solution of the problem. It is essentially a closed system; it has reached the limits of its real growth. If the rural schools—already far below the city standard in so far as the maturity, preparation, and experience of their teachers are concerned—are not to remain permanently and hope-

[1] In this connection, however, it should be said that the training class certificate legally qualifies one to teach *only* in a rural school.

lessly on their present level, a new policy of teacher-training and a new type of training institution are needed.

### The Six Weeks' Normal School Summer Sessions as a Substitute for the High School Training Classes

The State Education Department has apparently recognized that the day of the high school training has passed. In any event the number of these classes has declined from 113 in 1915 to 50 in 1921, and no efforts have been made to replace those that have been abandoned. In their place an attempt has been made to give prospective rural school teachers some training in six weeks' summer sessions established in the normal schools. Viewed simply as a substitute for the high school training system, this summer-session work would deserve to be characterized as a long step backward. The normal-school faculties are not as yet in a position to undertake the preparation of rural-school teachers. Their work for thirty years or more has been concentrated on the problem of supplying teachers for the graded elementary schools. Furthermore, while the summer-session courses of a normal school or college offer excellent opportunities for supplementing the education of teachers who are already in service, they should not be thought of as in any sense a substitute for pre-service training. In the first place, the most important part of a good teacher-training institution—the elementary practice school—can be operated, if at all, only with a greatly reduced pupil enrolment and an abbreviated program during the summer months. In the second place the period of six weeks is altogether too short a time for fundamental training. Better by far the retention of the high school training classes than their substitution by the far less adequate preparation thus provided.

It is probable, however, that the policy of the State Education Department looks much further than the six weeks' summer sessions of the normal schools—that it looks, indeed, toward the development of strong departments for the preparation of rural teachers in the regular sessions of these state teacher-training institutions. The possibilities of such a development will be considered in the following and concluding section of this report.

## A Suggested Program for the Improvement of Rural School Teachers

It is assumed in the following discussion that the open-country people desire for their schools a devoted and efficient group of teachers. It is also assumed that this desire coincides with a fundamental need of the state.

It is assumed further that such a group of teachers must necessarily meet standards of general and professional education that will not suffer by comparison with the standards prevailing in the best city schools; that the period of service should be longer and the annual "turnover" smaller than is now the case in the one-teacher schools; and that, in consequence, the group as a whole should be much more mature and should represent a much larger proportion of relatively permanent teachers.

A third assumption is that rural school service is a specialized service demanding a special type of teacher who has been selected and trained with the peculiar needs of the service primarily in view. This type of teacher, it is assumed, can be best recruited from open-country homes; consequently any program for improving rural school teachers should aim to retain at least as high a proportion of teachers from such homes as is represented in the present personnel of the one-teacher schools.

In addition to these assumptions certain of the facts and conclusions set forth in the preceding discussion should be kept steadily in mind in considering any constructive proposals for betterment:

1. The rural school teachers are now drawn predominantly from relatively large families living in very moderate financial circumstances. It is beyond doubt to the advantage of the schools to keep the service open to this type of recruit. Even if this were not the case, it is questionable whether a sufficient number of teachers could be secured if this source of supply were cut off. (See pp. 23–26.)

2. The high school training classes, because they are easy of access and inexpensive to attend, have been the line of least resistance in the preparation of rural school teachers. They have, however, reached the limits of their real growth, and their continuance as a principal agency of training will still further widen the gap between the rural and the urban schools. (See pp. 97–100.)

3. A reduction of the number of one-teacher schools and their replacement by larger school units will tend to raise the standards of education among the rural school teachers and to lengthen the period of service. *But it will also tend to decrease the proportion of teachers who have the open-country background unless steps are taken to prepare young people from the farms for these positions.* (See pp. 22 and 23.) Such a preparation cannot be successfully undertaken by the high school training classes.

4. The relative unattractiveness of service in the one-teacher schools is perhaps due as much to unsatisfactory conditions of work, lack of opportunities for growth, and professional isolation as it is to unsatisfactory living conditions and social isolation. (See pp. 37 and 38.)

In the light of these assumptions, facts, and conclusions, the following proposals are submitted:

1. There should be developed a strong *rural school department or division* in each of the existing state normal schools, these departments to be established as rapidly as the demand will warrant and as fast as they can properly be organized. These departments should be in charge of directors who are specialists in the preparation of rural school teachers. Associated with each director there should be a staff of instructors for the appointment of whom familiarity with rural school and rural life conditions should be an important qualification. The curriculum for the preparation of rural school teachers should be distinct and separate from the normal school curricula designed for urban teachers, and, although some of the work may well be done in the same classes, the rural school group should have its own quarters, its own organization, and the fullest opportunity to develop a thoroughgoing professional zeal and purpose. Closely associated with each rural school department there should be a group of neighboring rural schools. These should form the chief "laboratory" of the rural school department. The teachers of these outlying schools should have demonstrated their ability to do expertly well the work that the rural school involves. They should be paid in part by the state and should have recognition as members of the normal school staff. At the same time they

should be thoroughly acceptable as teachers to the local communities in which their schools are located.

The state normal schools at the present time are doing practically nothing in the way of supplying teachers for the rural schools, partly because their product is taken up immediately by the town and city schools and partly because the differentiated and specialized training that rural school teaching involves has not been provided. These conditions should be borne in mind when the few normal school graduates in the rural school service—often those who have failed to secure town and city appointments—are contrasted with the graduates of high school training classes—almost always to the disparagement of the former. Unless the normal schools are provided with well-staffed departments for training rural school teachers, the preparation of such teachers would best be left to the high school training classes; but it is thoroughly practicable to provide such departments and to give to the prospective rural school teachers a type of preparation that the high schools could not possibly equal. The normal schools in question are well distributed and well located for the purpose.

2. To make possible a selection of the best available talent, and to keep the teaching positions in the rural schools open to young people from the open-country homes that heretofore supplied the teachers of the one-teacher schools, a system of state scholarships should be provided. These should be open only to high school graduates who rank with the upper one-half or two-thirds of their high school classes. In addition, the most scientific means possible shall be used in determining their adaptability to teaching. In addition to these personal and educational qualifications they must have lived for at least two years in a rural community, as defined by the Federal census. Such scholarships should provide the holder with tuition while attending an approved course, and an allowance of $200 per year while away from home. The acceptance of a scholarship should be in the form of a pledge to serve following graduation for at least three years in the rural schools of the state. In case the holder of a university scholarship obtains a teaching scholarship, he shall be entitled to both if in attendance at any

institution offering a course approved for the training of rural school teachers.

This proposal to provide scholarships for teachers in training has abundant precedents. The state of New York already offers scholarships on a competitive basis to high-school graduates who wish to continue their studies in colleges and universities. If the holder of such a scholarship wishes to prepare for high school teaching, he or she may attend the State Teachers College at Albany and receive free tuition in addition to the cash bonus provided by the scholarship. The state also provides generous scholarships for those who are qualified to prepare for teaching vocational subjects under the provisions of the Smith-Hughes act. Maryland provides "maintenance scholarships" for students in its state normal schools; these include all necessary expenses of the student in excess of $100 each year. Smaller cash bonuses to such students are provided in a few other states. In many of the southern and western states scholarships are available from public funds for graduate study in the state universities. Such study is essential for appointment to teaching and research positions in the higher institutions.

3. State aid to one-teacher schools should be distributed in part on the basis of the training that the teacher has had, and to an extent that will enable any community to pay a substantial salary to a well-trained teacher if it wishes to employ such a teacher. A policy of this sort will do much to make *the one-teacher schools the posts of greatest distinction*. It would be advantageous, indeed, if beginning teachers, even when graduates of rural training departments of the normal schools, could first serve an apprenticeship in village schools or two-teacher schools before being advanced to the more difficult work of the one-teacher school.

4. In order to provide opportunities for continuous growth upon the part of rural school teachers, the rural school departments of the normal schools should organize Saturday classes at convenient centers and should also provide summer courses. This work should be designed still further to improve the teachers in the work of rural education, and the successful completion of such courses should qualify the teachers for salary advances, as is now the policy in progressive city school systems.

5. Provision should also be made in competent state institutions for special courses for supervisory officers to the end that these officers may be qualified to provide competent help for teachers in service.

6. It is suggested that after 1927 no new teachers shall be admitted to service in the elementary rural schools who have not completed a course in one of the state normal schools or the equivalent, such courses to be specifically designed to prepare for service in the rural schools.

7. During the period that it is necessary for high school training classes to be maintained it is proposed that the expense of such classes be borne by the state. This will necessitate complete control of the location, selection of teachers, and work done in these classes by the State Department of Education.

8. A special division of the State Department of Education should be organized to have, among other functions, administrative charge of the education of rural school teachers. This division should supervise the rural training departments of the state normal schools both as to the preparation that they provide for prospective rural teachers and as to the extension and summer courses that they offer to teachers in service. *It should be particularly charged with responsibility for keeping the work of these departments close to the rural school problem.*

9. The general policies governing the education of rural school teachers, however, should not be exclusively in the hands of the State Department of Education. At least once each year the men and women employed in the rural school departments of the normal schools, together with the specialists in the rural school division of the State Department of Education, should meet in conference for a thoroughgoing discussion of the problems that their work involves. Other groups should be represented in this conference—the rural school teachers themselves, the district superintendents, and the principal country-life organizations. Recommendations and suggested policies adopted by this conference should be duly considered by the Commissioner of Education, and, where changes in legislation are involved, transmitted by him to the governor and assembly. In this way the beneficial influences of central oversight may be

retained without retaining also its stultifying effects. In this way, too, the opinions and judgments of those who are most closely concerned with the work of rural education, and the wishes, criticisms, and suggestions of those who have most at stake in the rural schools, can be brought together in open discussion at stated intervals, and a means provided through which proposals for betterment can be not only formulated after due deliberation, but also sent on through regularly constituted channels to those with whom the final decision must rest—namely, the people of the state themselves as represented in their law-making and executive bodies.

PART II

# ELEMENTARY RURAL SCHOOL CURRICULUM

O. G. Brim

## CHAPTER IX

## GENERAL PRINCIPLES

IN THE elementary school we are to lay the basic foundation of social membership and a rich and continued individual growth. Real social membership is only possible to one who has learned to know and appreciate the achievements of the race and to appreciate and accept the ideals for which it strives. And individual growth is possible only as one becomes master of the social inheritance. Such an education must be broad in its scope and generous in its content.

The purpose of elementary education does not change for individuals or for locality. Consequently the purpose of the rural elementary school is the same as for elementary education anywhere. Its purpose is not changed because of what the parents of the pupils are now doing. Its function is not changed because of any crying community need or neglected features of the rural environment. Its purpose is not changed even by the probable vocational choice of the children, however accurately these may be foretold. The aims of elementary education can be attained only when they are not subordinated to such limited purposes.

### Nature of Rural Elementary Education

While the purpose of rural elementary education is that which is common to all elementary education, the content and organization

of the rural elementary school are not necessarily the same as that of urban elementary schools. The school is an institution created and established to promote growth. It is in a sense an artificial environment. It is instituted to simplify, to correct or supplement the experiences and opportunities of the normal environment. It interprets the immediate life of the child to him in terms of its larger significance and meaning. Unless environments are alike, the character of the schools will not be alike. Each should be suited to its environment. Since the rural environment, rural resources and rural needs differ from the conditions obtaining in urban centers we should expect a somewhat different institution.

## Nature of the Curriculum

This difference in the rural environment will have particular bearing on the curriculum. Rural and urban curricula will not be identical, but in certain very important features they will be alike. All have need for the fundamental skills and an appreciation and command of our social heritage. In some respects they will greatly differ. The school is to teach the child those essential things he does not learn outside of school. It is also to teach him in terms of his own experiences and by means of the life about him. Because a rural child's experiences and environment are different from those of urban children, the rural curriculum must differ from the curriculum for city schools. Local geography, local history, activities leading to civic habits and attitudes and to the essential health practices will all be characteristic of rural life and the local community. The urban children must be taught not only to understand and appreciate their own immediate group and environment, but also to understand and appreciate the joys and hardships, the opportunities and responsibilities, the distinctive social service of rural people. And in addition to an understanding and appreciation of rural life and folk the rural child must learn the same lesson in regard to urban folk, their life and work, if a larger national community spirit is to be realized. To reach the common goal, rural and urban children travel somewhat different roads.

In certain respects this principle holds true as between children in different communities, for the conditions and needs of localities

differ. This is especially true the farther we move from a consideration of the more general features of the course of study to its particular aspects. The principle applies with particular force to the method of procedure and organization of materials. While maintaining, therefore, that the objectives of elementary education are common for all places, the curriculum, the way to this common end, is not alike for any two places or people.

### Manner of Determining Curriculum

A. The foregoing statements as to purpose of education, the essential nature of the content and school activity have certain implications concerning the method of curriculum construction.

The aims and values of elementary education must be determined finally by those responsible for protecting, promoting, and coördinating the interests of all and for furthering social progress. In our country this task devolves upon the state. Therefore, it is the duty of the state to determine the major objectives and purposes of education.

Education is to produce specific changes in individual pupils. The course of study is a means to that end. Since these changes will vary with the individual and the community, a prescribed, state-wide course of study will be suited to none. In the practice of medicine a well-trained doctor diagnoses a particular case and prescribes from his vast store of effective agents just such material as is good for the patient. If a course of study is to be scientifically constructed, we must follow the same procedure. Well-trained teachers, who are clearly conscious of social values and educational objectives and are masters of educational resources will diagnose local conditions, determine educational resources and needs, select subject matter, apply methods and organize school activities. Ideally such a curriculum needs to be made for each particular community.

Actually many of these needs will be common to all boys and girls throughout the state. Many more will be common to all rural children and to children of a given region. In so far as common needs and problems are found there will be a common curriculum. But a common curriculum developed in the above manner will have

this virtue. It will have been arrived at inductively, from a thousand instances of suiting content to specific needs, rather than by our present system of making a curriculum suited to no one in particular and forced upon all in the vain belief that it is therefore suited to all.

In developing and constructing these local curricula the teachers would need every possible assistance from the educational officers of the state and of intermediate units. Changes in educational theory, the result of research, improvements worked out in the actual school-room, additional teaching resources, and so forth, should all be made available to them. Every force should seek to help the teacher provide for the children educational experiences finely adjusted to their interest and needs, and of such nature as to promote the fullest individual growth and abundant social service.

B. A second type of procedure is possible. It is the more commonly found, but is not so exact or scientific. It is that in which state-wide committees, chosen with particular reference to their interest, training and field experience for that certain phase of the work, guided by customs, general principles and the results of educational research, establish a curriculum for all and depend upon the individual teacher to suit it to his particular children, school and community.

1. The function of a state curriculum so prepared is, in general, to promote the education of the children. It is primarily a tool, a guide and handbook for the teacher. Among the many things that it should do for him, the following have been selected as of fundamental importance:

a. It should present clearly to the teacher the aims of elementary education in general and the functions, values, and specific objectives of each particular subject. A teacher must have these clearly in mind in order to make intelligent use of the time devoted to any subject. These should not only be stated in the course of study, but should be carefully adhered to and exemplified throughout each subject and the entire curriculum.

b. It should set up the most reliable objectives for each stage, the standards of attainment for the various subjects in all grades.

c. It should promote the selection of content of largest value and

interest to the child and of greatest social significance. This content cannot be given fully in a syllabus or course of study. In fact, it is not known exactly what is of most value either for society as a whole or for any one school or child. In so far as we have evidence it should be followed. But since suitable content is uncertain in many respects, the teacher must be given freedom and guidance in continually selecting from among the rich social heritage just those facts and experiences that will serve the need of his pupils.

d. It should promote the use of the most approved methods. In the last analysis, method even more than content varies with the individual. It must be suited to the situation and the need. Consequently the task of the curriculum is to make clear to the teacher the most approved methods and the principles controlling their use. Then she should be given whatever freedom and guidance is necessary to promote effective teaching.

e. The curriculum must aid the teacher in solving the practical problems of classroom organization. The grouping of pupils, the distribution of time between grades and between the subjects, the arrangement of classes, the selection of textbooks and equipment, all affect the real course of study that is followed by the children. These cannot be answered in detail. Schools and conditions vary so that each teacher must make his own daily program, arrange for combinations of grades and the distribution of time. He could use such freedom more wisely and profitably, however, if the state furnished him certain guiding principles and suggestions, provisional daily programs, practical distributions of time for subject and grade, and content organized in relation to the type of school organization.

f. The curriculum is a tool to be used. It must be suited to those who use it and the conditions under which it is to be used. Rural teachers are relatively young, untrained, inexperienced and overburdened. Selection of content and method of procedure must be suited to those teachers. The scope and organization of work, the distribution of time, should be such that the rural teacher can effectively use it in the rural school.

2. The method of constructing and administering this second type of curriculum is important. In order that it may be in keeping

with the most approved standards and practice and at the same time suited, in so far as this is possible, to the actual school situation, it should be constructed by a committee representing all groups who can contribute to its fundamental worth and utility. Committees, specially fitted, should prepare the various sections. Initial plans, framework and all reports should be generally discussed, critically evaluated, coördinated, and, in so far as possible, tested in actual school room situations before being issued.

This curriculum should not be looked upon as fixed or final. In order to promote its adjustment to local communities and to produce constructive work by officers of the intermediate units and by teachers, a spirit of leadership rather than authority should characterize state and local officials. The teachers should be expected to exercise initiative and judgment rather than obedience and passive administration of the course as given.

The adaptation of such a state-issued curriculum to local conditions is not enough. Creative work on the part of teachers is necessary. The present content, method and organization have been inherited largely. They are of academic production. A more scientific attitude toward educational questions is needed. It would be desirable to have every school in part a laboratory, every teacher in part a research student. From a careful study of the results secured by teachers in thus suiting content and method to particular needs in thousands of instances, the printed curriculum could be more effectively evaluated and reconstructed in terms of actual use. This type of procedure by the rural teacher will not come by merely not prohibiting it. It needs to be encouraged, definitely planned, carefully promoted. The state must take the leadership in this as one of the permanent means of scientific curriculum building.

In order that adjustment and constructive work may be assured, and that the results of later improvement may be immediately brought before the school people of the state, tested, and, in so far as wise, used in the local schools, some one in the state departments, expert in these matters, should be specifically charged with leadership in this field of continued adjustment, revision and improvement.

### Curriculum in New York State

In New York State the authority for determining the curriculum for each school is vested in the local district trustee or trustees. Evidently this professional task has not been effectively performed by the lay officials. School people of the state early began to urge the "grading of rural schools, the adoption in every district of the State of the uniform course of study and examinations for the common schools." They held that it was "desirable as well as practicable that the course of study be directed by the Department of Public Instruction." As a result there has appeared the present *State* course of study. While the state is not legally responsible for providing a curriculum yet, having assumed the task as evidenced by its printed syllabi and examination system, it becomes responsible for doing this effectively.

### Type Prevailing in New York State

The second method of curriculum construction is more characteristic of New York State procedure. It would be unprofitable to evaluate this State curriculum with reference to the first plan. We shall, therefore, compare it with the standards set up for the second type of curriculum.

## CHAPTER X

# EVALUATION OF THE PRINTED CURRICULUM

### 1. As to Aim

WE expect the state in its educational leadership to have determined upon some fundamental educational principles, to have set up its major objectives and to have constructed its curriculum with reference to them. Since in New York State there is but a single curriculum for both rural and urban children, those responsible for it evidently had in mind a common purpose for both. What this purpose is, however, one cannot tell. It is not stated. In fact there seems to have been none clearly defined in the minds of those who prepared the course. The only statement of the general aim is found in the introduction to the 1910 syllabus of the first six grades. Finegan says, "The course is general in character and adapted to all children until that period of their development when they manifest different interests, mental powers and tastes which is usually at the age of twelve."[1] The work for the seventh and eighth grades has a more specific purpose. Of this he says, "Work is planned which leads to the long established high-school course, to commercial courses, and to industrial courses."[1]

An examination of the content of the various syllabi for the first six grades reveals no underlying philosophy. The courses have been made out at different times by individuals or groups working independently. Consequently there are no fundamental principles which they all follow and no major ends to which they all contribute. As a whole they represent a random collection of facts rather than carefully organized materials selected with reference to a clearly defined educational purpose.

The assumption for the last two grades of the 1910 syllabus is

[1] Introduction to 1910 Edition of Syllabus for Elementary Schools of New York State.

that pupils have begun to specialize in interest and have practically chosen their occupations. The course in seventh and eighth grade agriculture in that edition "proposes to furnish vocational training in agriculture for the schools located in the open country in as definite and purposeful a manner as similar training in industrial lines has been provided in the syllabus for city schools" (1910 p. 251). In the 1917 syllabus on agriculture and homemaking the purpose is changed. The aim is to contribute through this material to the general elementary education of the child. Effort was made to relate the work in these subjects more closely to the other subjects in the curriculum.

The same assumption of vocational choice appears more definitely in the outline for seventh and eighth grade geography. The pupil is expected to have already chosen his occupation or trade. This syllabus states, "It is expected that the study of industrial geography will concern itself with the geographic influences which modify the particular trade for which the student is preparing."[1]

A change in the nature of the work and some change in the specific purposes at the beginning of the seventh year are generally agreed upon as advisable. Such recognition in the course of study is to be approved. It is not, however, consistent with the purposes of education in a democracy to start specific preparation for a vocation so early.[2] The problems of our general social life for which elementary education is to prepare are so many and so complicated that they cannot be given proper consideration in the first six grades. The wise choice of a vocation is so difficult, so important to the child and so significant to society, that a definite period for a study of the vocational opportunities and of our present social order preparatory to choice is deemed wise.

This tendency to give vocational training in the elementary school is not strong in the state yet its presence is worth noting. In fact the club work in agriculture and homemaking fostered by the Department of Agriculture at Washington primarily for adult and vocational ends is, in this State, termed Junior Project work

[1] Syllabus for the Elementary Schools. 1910 Edition, p. 236.

[2] See Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 35, pp. 18–19.

and is closely allied to school work and has the educational aspects strongly emphasized.

The objectives for the separate subjects, while definitely and clearly stated in a few instances, are in the main vague or lacking. The general aims for civics and patriotism and for English language and literature are clearly stated, and throughout the syllabi are quite consistently followed. The aim for the work in physiology is "to develop the right ideals and cultivate good-health habits" (1910 edition, p. 115). In spite of this statement of purpose in terms of habits and attitudes, by far the major portion of the course deals with formal and useless physiological materials. One may infer from certain sentences in the geography syllabus that its purpose is to give the child an understanding and an appreciation of the relation of the earth's forces to man's behavior. In no place is this stated definitely. Neither is it consistently adhered to in the content selected or the methods advised. The inadequacy of the statement of the function of history appears in the following: "The purpose of history teaching in these grades is to awaken interest, encourage supplementary reading and present worthy ideals."[1]

Educators are becoming more and more conscious of the importance of determining and defining their objectives exactly and in detail. No matter how general our philosophy, the aims of education, if realized at all, will be realized in specific form. We can never hope to make education either economical or effective unless the desired results are specified in great detail and the work carefully directed to their attainment.

In clearly defined general objectives and in specific objectives for each subject, the State course of study is very defective. Instead of setting up *specific objectives* for the field of elementary education in terms of certain *knowledge*, *habits*, *attitudes* and *skills* or in other terms equally consistent with some fundamental social philosophy, the state has established a school system, outlined certain subjects to be taught, listed certain topics to be learned, certain facts to be memorized, instituted a system of formal examinations for testing such memory content with the evident hope that the pupils would somehow through it all be acceptably educated.

[1] Syllabus for Elementary Schools. American History, p. 1.

Such vague unguided efforts on the part of a state will not secure the maximum in the way of results. Education is a state function. If the state is to meet the responsibilities placed upon it, this problem must be duly considered. The function of elementary education must be determined, the subsidiary aims defined. The function of each particular course must be specified and the various minor aims stated. These should be consistent in purpose and either agree with generally accepted theory in education or explicitly justify departures therefrom. They should be so clearly presented, so fully illustrated, so explicitly demonstrated in method and content throughout the several courses of study that teachers, comprehending the principles and objectives, will be able to work toward them intelligently.

### 2. As to Content

Having determined the aims of education, both general and specific, the state, through its curriculum, is to promote the selection of content socially valuable and conducive to individual development. Lacking both a clear definition of specific objectives to be attained in elementary education, and time and space for considering them in detail, we shall confine our study to the more general principles. There are two guiding principles that may be used in evaluating the selection of content for any course or subject. The *first* is that the material must be chosen with reference to its value to individuals in general and to society. Ability to add and subtract is obviously needed by all. Ability to spell commonly used words, to write a legible hand, to express one's self in clear and correct English are unquestioned essentials. Some other elements of our possible knowledge are not so essential. What and where the Taj Mahal is? Where Toronto got its name? What was the nickname of Joseph Hooker? are questions whose answers are of little significance. We have not time for everything. We must select in terms of the general significance of the facts to our social life and to the child's development.

This basis is sufficient to guide us in determining the major scope and content of the curriculum for the elementary school. But a general content is not all that is demanded of a syllabus. The syllabus is for local use. Communities and children differ. Their

needs vary. Consequently the curriculum best suited to meet these conditions and needs will vary. The *second* principle is, therefore, that we must choose our material with particular reference to the group to be served. The accepted social values will determine the curriculum in broad outline and indicate the desired possessions of each at the end of the course. The needs and conditions of the group will determine the real curriculum to be covered at any particular place. Has the state selected content of greatest general social value for the various subjects of the curriculum? Is such material suited to the needs of the rural children of elementary school age?

If these questions were to be answered in general the answers would in both cases be positively "No." On the whole the content is formal, the outlines barren and much of the material practically worthless. The curriculum was constructed either with no particular group in mind, upon the apparent belief that that which is suited to no particular place is therefore suited to all, or else it was constructed primarily for urban teachers and urban children. Much of it, doubtless, is the increment of tradition, material that had found its way into text books and thereby became accepted as the essence of an education. However, the various syllabi are not equally at fault with reference to these two standards. Some are of recent production and some are old. Some are fairly suited to all children, others are not. It will be more helpful if some of the separate syllabi are treated more in detail and the questions more specifically answered. We will consider first the general educational value of the content.

Content in Relation to General Educational Values.—The content in English has been most carefully selected with reference to its functional value. The most common language difficulties are specified and taken up. Grammar is presented in relation to its use. The selections in literature would serve to acquaint the child with many masterpieces and serve as a means of real literary appreciation. The work in this syllabus is to be much commended.

The syllabus on Civics and Patriotism, judged with reference to this standard alone, ranks fairly high. The makers have been

guided by the modern aims of civic education.[1] They have selected their materials primarily with reference to a child's social and civic responsibilities rather than with reference to the formal aspects of civic organization. The topics outlined and the problems raised are on the whole of fundamental social significance.

The content in the syllabi for the other major subjects is much inferior. It is out of date in many respects and far too brief to be of much help to a rural teacher.

In the syllabus for arithmetic much that is impractical has been omitted. Teachers are advised that in the teaching of fractions the "Denominators of these fractions should not exceed 24," and to "make little use of the denominators 13, 17, 19, 29, 39" (Arithmetic syllabus, p. 9). However, certain other features might well be omitted, for example, defining such terms as addend, minuend, subtrahend, multiplican, quotient; memorizing the prime factors, the table of 12's mastering the G.C.D., L.C.M., problems of the specialized trades, such as: paperhanging and masonry or of the now uncommon practice of carpeting a room, finding the contents of the pyramid and cone.[2] The greatest weakness in this syllabus, however, is not in the scope or topics treated but in the standards set up, the type of problems given and methods followed. These will be considered later.

In geography the aim for the first six grades seems to have been to select for consideration those geographic facts that bear most directly upon the welfare of man. The work, however, appears in outline form and the topics are so brief and barren that they are practically meaningless. A half year is to be given to local geography. To this whole question the syllabus gives only fifteen lines. In this connection one must recall that the teacher has practically no other help in teaching local geography than that which this syllabus furnishes. There is no text book. The teacher very likely has had no such course. It is interesting to note that the 1908 syllabus upon which that of 1910 was based was better in this respect. It gave six pages of good material on "Home Geography" specifically for village and rural schools.

[1] Syllabus in Civics and Patriotism, pp. 4–5.

[2] See E. L. Thorndike, Psychology of Arithmetic, pp. 25–6.

The remainder of the present geography syllabus consists of four outlines of which the following excerpts are typical:

North America[1]

4. Relief
   a. Highlands
   b. Lowlands
5. Rainfall and drainage
   a. Gulf drainage
   b. Atlantic drainage
   c. Pacific drainage
6. Distribution of population
   This should be an extremely simple division into dense, less dense, etc.
7. Political divisions
   a. United States and Alaska
   b. Dominion of Canada
   c. Mexico
   d. Central America
   e. West Indies

New York State[2]

9. Animal life
   a. Hunting in the Adirondacks
   b. Commercial fishing in the sound and the Great Lakes
10. Mineral wealth other than soils
   a. The quarries
   b. Cement
   c. Clays
   d. Salt
   e. Gypsum
   f. Petroleum
   g. Graphite
   h. Iron
11. Manufacturing
   Point out that this will be carried on chiefly in large centers of population, and pass at once to a consideration of the
12. Distribution of population
   The population will vary in density with the possibility of occupation. In manufacturing centers where the industries are the outgrowth of local supplies of raw material, that fact should be pointed out. Otherwise the chief industries should be noted without much further comment.

[1] Geography syllabus, p. 6, grade 4. [2] Geography syllabus, p. 9, grade 5.

With such an outline the teacher may do several things. He may use it wisely as a guiding organization and select his facts with care. He may teach all the facts in the textbook ignoring the syllabus. An actual survey shows he prepares the child through persistent and meaningless drill to learn parrot-like answers to questions upon each of these topics and sub-topics or, more frequently, to questions that appear on the Regents Examinations which are on the whole of the same factual nature.[1]

The work of the 7th and 8th grades (referred to elsewhere) is assigned to the field of Commercial and Industrial geography, of a distinctly vocational nature. It is as formal and barren as that for the preceding grades.

The content of the history course like that of geography represents the practice current several decades ago. Some time is given in the 5th and 6th grades to the biographical stories of poorly selected characters in our history. The 7th and 8th grades are given to a brief survey of stereotyped American history.

Just what phases of the history of the human race should be included in a course for elementary schools are not wholly agreed upon. That the history course in New York State is too limited a treatment of the whole history topic, no modern educator will deny. The Committee of Eight has recommended a course covering the full eight years, during which some attention should be given to local history, history of primitive man, and to European history as well as to American history. Several progressive states have accepted these aspects as a legitimate field for history in the elementary school.

[1] First four questions from the Preliminary Examination, Jan. 19, 1921:
1. Answer both *a* and *b:*
*a*. In what state is *each* of the following cities: Philadelphia, Cleveland, Jacksonville, New Haven, Santa Fe? (5)
*b*. In what country is *each* of the following cities: Glasgow, Alexandria, Sydney, Tokyo? (5)
2. Draw an outline map of South America (5). On this map (*a*) draw lines to represent the equator and the Tropic of Capricorn (2); (*b*) locate, with names, Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires, Para (3).
3. What and where is each of *five* of the following: the Vatican, the Louvre, the Trossachs, the Hague, the Marne, the Everglades, the Parthenon, the Colosseum, the Taj Mahl? (10)
4. Name *three* important straits (6). Name the waters connected by each (2). Name the lands separated by each (2).

In New York State the field of history is not only limited, but the selection of material within the field covered represents a random sampling rather than any choice based upon principle or purpose. It does little more than to mention a few topics and call attention to certain facts under each, most of which are of little or no significance. What significance there may be is never pointed out. A few sample selections will serve to bear out these statements.

(Biographical History, Grades 4 and 5)

3. Drake and the Armada, 1588. (3 lessons given to this in gr. 4)
   a. Robbing the robber; The riches of Mexico and Peru; how the Spaniards got them and what they did with them; Drake's voyage around the world; the straits of Magellan; New Albion; the route home.
   b. "Singeing the beard" of the King of Spain.
   c. The Armada.
   d. Drake's companions: Hawkins and Raleigh.
   *Map work.* Trace the route of Drake on his voyage around the world.

16. Sir William Johnson, the Indian's friend. (2 lessons given to this in gr. 4)
   a. Early home in Ireland; Sir Peter Warren's estate on the Mohawk; managing his uncle's estate; becomes a great landowner.
   b. His homes at Aiken and Johnstown.
   c. Relations with the Indians; becomes an Indian chief; Indian commissioner for King George; keeping the friendship of the Iroquois and saving New York for the English.
   d. The last French and Indian War; Lake George; Niagara.
   e. Pontiac's War and the great council at Niagara.

17. Local history. (Grade 4. To be given in from 1 to 4 lessons)[1]
   a. The oldest houses in the *village* or *city;*[2] when built; who lived in them; relatives in school of people who built these houses.
   b. Industries: old *factories;* old stores; early *industries* of the *village* or *city.*

[1] This is all the time given to local history and all the help given through the course of study.

[2] Italics are mine. They call attention to the emphasis upon urban experiences.

c. Inhabitants; any people who have lived in the *village* or *city* who took part in the War of the Revolution; in the War of 1812; in the Mexican War; in the Civil War.

*Map work:* Any old maps of the village or city.

*References:* County or local histories; inscriptions in cemeteries.

19. Clara Barton. (Grade 5, 1 lesson)
    a. The sanitary Commission: Clara Barton; Dorothy Dix; Mary Livermore.
    b. The Red Cross: Miss Barton joins the Red Cross Society in Germany; the purpose of the American Association of the Red Cross; the Johnstown flood; the civil war in Cuba; the War with Spain.

(Narrative History, Grades 6 and 7)

5. Development of the Colonies. (Grade 7, 6 lessons)
   Travel and communication; manufactures; commerce; restrictions on manufactures and commerce; colonial governments; popular amusements; life in the New England town and on the southern plantation; effects on the colonists of the French and Indian Wars.

14. One nation of many states. (Grade 8, 10 lessons)
    a. The purchase of Alaska; products.
    b. Steps of progress: the Atlantic cable; the first transcontinental railway; growth of the West; the Homestead Act; cattle and sheep ranches; irrigation; manufacturing in the South; education of the negro; growth of cities; the telephone; electric traction.
    c. The assassination of Garfield and civil service reform.
    d. War with Spain and island possessions: Dewey at Manila; Sampson and Schley at Santiago; Roosevelt and the Rough Riders; the treaty of peace; territorial additions.
    e. The Panama Canal; the Hague Tribunal.
       *Map work.* Map of island possessions showing relative size.

15. Leaders in Literature, Science, Philanthropy. (Grade 8, 4 lessons)
    a. Irving, Cooper, Hawthorne, Longfellow, Lowell, Whittier, Bryant, Greeley.
    b. Morse, Fulton, McCormick, Howe, Ericsson, Field, Eads, Bell, Edison.
    c. Peter Cooper, Riis, Carnegie.

Following the suggestions of the Committee of Eight certain other states[1] have provided history courses that much more effectively bring to the child the rich treasures and lessons of history. The present New York State syllabus is conducive to little more than memoritor learning of quite meaningless facts.

If the material of the physiology syllabus had been selected to carry out the stated purpose, a better content would bave been secured. The purpose is thus given, "In all the courses the aim should be to cultivate good health habits."[2] In spite of this, the *first paragraph* given for the *first, second* and *third* grades is as follows:

I. The body.

Its composition; flesh, blood, bones. Location, name and use of the chief parts and organs—head, trunk, brain, heart, lungs, stomach, etc. Principal functions—motion, respiration, nutrition, excretion, and sensation. (p. 115—1910 Edition.)

For the intermediate grades such material as this is given.

VI. Blood and circulation.

How digested food, oxygen and water get to all parts of the body; composition of the blood (red and white corpuscles, serum, etc., and the use of each spoken of in an elementary way); simple description of the heart, arteries, veins and capillaries, and the uses of each; arterial and venus blood compared; the pulse and how to tell its rate, normal pulse, etc.; the course of the blood in pulmonary and systemic circulation described, but without special effort to have details remembered, change in appearance of blood during each and reason for; the points to be emphasized are the vital necessity for free circulation of the blood to every part of the body, why circulation should not be obstructed by tight clothing or improper position and how circulation may be improved by exercise, massage, etc.

The suggested activities for nature study are on the whole good. The author has suggested an abundance of things for the teacher and children to do. In fact, they are so numerous, so unrelated, so without organization or purpose that they are not as effective as

[1] See Courses of Study for Missouri, New Jersey, Minnesota, Baltimore Co., Md.

[2] Syllabus for the Elementary Schools. 1910 Edition, p. 115.

they might be. The activities were selected without reference to relative value and are presented to the teacher without reference to their significance. From a single page the following are selected:[1]

Keep in the school room plants that will do well.

Gather cocoons or ask the children to look on lilac bushes, shrub tangles and fruit trees for them.

Teach the pupils to identify a few kinds of trees by their twigs in winter condition.

Call attention to the first snow flakes and the number of points they have. Are they all the same shape?

Notice the frost on the windows.

Every one of these may be of educative value or none of them may be. It will depend upon what is done with them. What is the child supposed to learn from these activities? Are we any more justified in asking a child to learn disconnected and useless facts in nature study than the uncommon words in spelling or the impractical problems in arithmetic? Is one any less socially fit to be ignorant of the unimportant facts in the world about you than of the unimportant facts in history? Nature study must deal with that which has meaning to man and this relation must be made clear to the child.

Nature study is limited to the first six grades. For the 7th and 8th grade work in elementary agriculture and homemaking is provided. It is organized as junior project work. The course of study in this work is almost useless to the teacher. The first part is composed of suggestions for *organizing* and conducting the mechanics of the work. The second part is limited to a mere listing of projects that might be undertaken.

Because of the ease with which the content in the work of spelling could be measured, it has been given a more careful analysis. The results of the study follow.

The Regents 5,000 word list[2] brought out in 1916 was taken as the basis of the study. This list was not prepared to guide teachers

[1] Syllabus for Nature Study, p. 5.

[2] Regents 5,000 Words in Spelling. Bacon & Vincent, Buffalo, N. Y.

in the selection of school work in spelling. But teachers are so dependent upon anything prepared by the Regents that this list has become very largely the guide in selecting spelling words. It was compared with the Buckingham Extension of the Ayres Scale,[1] with the Iowa Spelling Scale,[2] and with the "One Hundred Spelling Demons of the English Language."[3]

The results found in checking the Regents 5,000 word list with the "One Hundred Spelling Demons" show that 87 of the 100 are included. Thirteen of these 100 most difficult words are omitted.

The Iowa Spelling Scale is a list of 2,977 words which were taken from a study by W. N. Anderson of the University of Iowa. The list represents the 2,977 most commonly used words in "3,723 social and business letters written by persons engaged in professional, agricultural, commercial, industrial and domestic occupations." By comparing the Regents 5,000 word list with the Iowa Spelling Scale it was found that only 1,780 or 59% of the 2,977 words in the Iowa Spelling Scale are included in the Regents 5,000 word list. These 5,000 words fail to include 1,197 of the 3,000 words found by Anderson to be those most commonly used in correspondence.

Since the Regents list contains 5,000 and the Iowa Scale only 2,977 a real measure of the relative value of their selections can be found only by reducing them to the same basis. If the 1,780 words common to both are reduced two-fifths (the 2,977 is three-fifths of 5,000), we get 1,068. One thousand sixty-eight words or 36.5% of 3,000 words taken at random from the Regents list are found in the 2,977 in the Iowa Scale. When measured by the Iowa Scale the Regents list has, therefore, an efficiency of 36.5%.

The Buckingham Scale includes 1,505 words. The Regents list for the 7th and 8th grades, including 1,854 words, was compared with the Buckingham Scale with the following results.

1. Only 253 of these 1,854 words are found in the Buckingham Scale.

2. Only 126 of these, or less than 50%, are found above column

[1] Buckingham Extension of the Ayres Spelling Scale.

[2] Iowa Spelling Scale. E. J. Ashbaugh, Bul. 55, Univ. of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

[3] Concrete Investigation of the Materials of English Spelling. W. F. Jones, Univ. of South Dakota, Vermillion, S. D.

M on the scale. Column N is that list of words which 8th grade pupils would be expected to spell with 100% accuracy and the 7th grade pupils would be expected to make a grade of 98%. Only one-half of these 253 Regents words found in the Buckingham Scale are such, therefore, as to need much attention by the 7th and 8th grades.

These 253 words are only 16.8% of the words in the Buckingham Scale. The Regents list for the 7th and 8th grades has *failed* to include 1,252 words, or 83.2% of the words in the Buckingham Scale.

The result is less promising if we compare the Regents list for the 7th and 8th grades with that part of the Buckingham Scale which is of sufficient difficulty to be subject matter for study in these grades,—*i. e.*, words above column M. In this part of the Buckingham Scale there are 986 words. There are 126 of these words in the Regents list. Consequently only 13% of this part of the Scale is found in the Regents list for the 7th and 8th grades.

This study is not meant to imply that either the Buckingham Scale or the Iowa Scale is perfect. They represent the results of careful study of written vocabularies, and are doubtless an accurate record of what they purport to be. In contrast with them the New York State Regents list has an efficiency of 16.8% and 36.5%. If these figures are an indication of the real situation, the content of the course in spelling in New York State needs revision. Rural children are spending valuable time to no advantage.

Conclusions for other subjects cannot safely be drawn from the facts of spelling. It is the belief of the writer that, could the courses in arithmetic, geography, history and hygiene be similarly evaluated they would fall equally far below the best educational standards in their respective fields.

Content in Relation to Needs of Rural Children.—Our second criterion for judging content was its suitability to the conditions of the particular situation where it is to be used. This principle does not affect all subjects equally or all parts of any one subject equally. It will, however, have some bearing upon every aspect of the course of study. Only the major features of this question can be considered.

In the selection of content practically no attention has been given to rural life conditions and needs. The course in physiology is really old-fashioned formal physiology, consequently it does not bear upon the sanitary problems of rural folk. Local history is to receive from one to four lessons. A cursory reading of the quotation given on page 123 will show even this is directed to village and city conditions. Local geography is to cover about a half year. To the former the syllabus gives six lines, and to the latter fifteen. Moreover, as might be gathered from the quoted sections, the work throughout in geography and history bears no relation to local problems, interests, experiences, and resources. The abstract feature of arithmetic continues practically throughout the course. In the 8th year the following is advised: "Those schools that offer instruction in household and manual arts and agriculture have an excellent opportunity to relate this instruction to book work. A series of problems, vitally related to cooking, sewing, woodworking, mechanical drawing and farming may be worked out."[1] Instead of being the point of approach and background for all number work, this rural aspect appears so late as to be practically useless.

The neglect of the rural situation can best be seen in the syllabus on Civics and Patriotism. The expressed aims of the course are socialized habits and attitudes. "Action," the authors say, "is the goal toward which we are striving. . . . We begin with those particular phases of our group life which are full well within the child's experience, and follow his gradually expanding civic relations, giving him every opportunity for service in the group studied." This must mean for the rural child an actual participation in the activities of the community life—the home, the school, the church, the grange and social life. Yet little attention is given to the specifically rural groups: the church, the grange, parent-teachers' association, the home and farm bureaus. When such a common topic as recreation is outlined, it is treated almost entirely from an urban point of view. (See the Syllabus, p. 55.) The same may be said of transportation (p. 57) and protection of life and property (p. 48).

Each syllabus could be analyzed in detail and the needed correc-

[1] Elementary Syllabus. Arithmetic, p. 19.

tions pointed out at length. That is impossible here, and unnecessary.

On the whole, the content of the syllabi is out of date, so meager that it is useless, and so general that it has little relation to any particular place, least of all the country. Formal facts in physiology, meager outlines in geography, listed topics in history, abstract number work in arithmetic and improbable words in spelling show lack of regard for fundamental social values and lack of attention to specific rural needs. We conclude, therefore, that the syllabus should be revised to make its content consistent with modern standards and that in this revision content be selected specifically suitable to the resources and needs of rural children.

### 3. As to Organization of Materials and Method

If the course of study is to render the teacher all possible help, it should demonstrate and offer the most approved advice on method and give abundant help and suggestions for realizing this approved type of procedure in school activity. Dr. McMurry, in his presentation of "Principles Underlying the Making of School Curricula,"[1] points out a "tendency for curriculum making to consist in a mere arbitrary selection of subject matter, and for classroom teaching to consist in the adaptation of this subject matter to the purposes and conditions of instruction." He presents in place of this belief the following principle:

"Curriculum making and teaching are, however, both responsible for adaptation of subject-matter to the purposes and conditions of instruction. They are related to each other as the earlier and later stages of one extended process.

"a. As evidence of this fact, some experienced teachers and superintendents regard the curriculum as *equally* responsible with the teacher for the quality of instruction.

"b. The great influence of the curriculum is shown by the fact that many portions of present curricula tend to *prevent* good instruction, even by good teachers.

"c. A good curriculum is far more than a sum of fragments of knowledge, and far more than a mere outline of facts or topics;

[1] F. M. McMurry: Teachers College Record, Sept., 1915.

it is the raw material of knowledge, refined or converted into a form usable for educational purposes."

The state would evidently agree with McMurry for it undertakes to guide in the method of handling the material. We feel justified, then, in evaluating this method aspect in terms of modern standards and the rural school situation. This advice as to method should be so stated as to be readily understood and followed by the group of teachers who are called upon to use this course of study. Whatever is needed in the way of specific helps, illustrations, lesson plans, etc., should be carefully provided.

Evaluation with Reference to General Standards.—Among educators today there is a strong tendency to organize school work about problems or projects. Questions in hygiene, geography, history, civics and industrial arts lead to the study, use and mastery of the social heritage. In the New York State syllabi this modern method finds no expression. The project-problem type of organization was unknown or ignored when the various syllabi were prepared.

Of the various syllabi that on English is the only one which merits much approval in respect to method. The authors have evidently made a careful study of the results of recent research in education and have planned their work in keeping with it. The large provision for oral expression, the importance given to language, the recognition of need for abundant experience, the listing of personal language defects, the approach to grammar and the method of treating it, all are in keeping with the approved practices in that field.

The recently issued syllabus on Civics and Patriotism recognizes the need of activity in carrying out social and civic projects as a basis of forming civic attitudes and habits. But the persistent tendency to make formal, logical outlines has carried over into this field and has practically nullified the proposed procedure. The organization of the material is largely from the standpoint of what the pupils ought to *know* rather than from the standpoint of pupil problems and activities. Activities are made a sort of adjunct rather than the core of the course.

The greatest shortcoming is in the treatment of reading and

spelling. Reading is a basic skill that all children should acquire. It is a subject in which rural children are especially deficient,[1] yet the ability to read is fundamental to all their other work. It is without doubt the one subject in which a course of study could help the teacher most. Recent research has contributed richly to improved methods in teaching reading. In spite of the above facts, the state, in recently revising its work on English, carefully considered language, composition, grammar and literature, but omitted reading. Consequently the only help on reading available through the course of study is a brief, out of date, and ineffective treatment given in the 1910 syllabus.

The treatment of spelling in the 1910 syllabus is practically limited to a statement of the book or section to be covered. It receives a single reference in the revised English syllabus. Yet spelling, like reading, has been most scientifically studied. The resulting approved methods of teaching spelling have been carefully collected and treated in an article by Horn.[2] None of these have been presented to rural teachers through the course of study.

Geography, history, physiology and nature study deal almost entirely in disconnected facts, or formal outlines of facts to be studied, memorized and reproduced upon examination. Almost no provision has been made for constructive thinking upon the part of the pupils.

The spirit of the course of study upon the method side may be illustrated by quotations from the geography and history syllabi. "As far as possible," the authors advise, "the work in geography should be developed in a logical order, but no attempt should be made to force the child to do much reasoning. In this age (8 to 10 years of age) of his mental development he is not a reasoning being. He is rather storing his mind with facts. He remembers."[3] Consistent with this belief is the advice for class procedure. "For this work the lessons should be assigned from a textbook, and the

[1] Cf.: Survey of New York State Rural Schools. Volume VI, Educational Achievement, Chap. 3.

[2] Principles of Method in Teaching Spelling as Derived from Scientific Investigation. Ernest Horn, Eighteenth Year Book National Society for Study of Education. Part II, pp. 52–77.

[3] Geography syllabus, p. 4.

pupils should be held to a careful preparation of these lessons. . . The elementary textbook is usually the first book placed in the hands of the children which they are expected to study for the purpose of obtaining information and for that reason it is extremely important that its use should be carefully taught. This is best done by discussing each day in class the lesson for the next day, and at the close of the oral work, assigning the same lesson for study. Later the children should be called upon to *recite upon the text.*"[1]

The authors do recommend "geography of reason" for the last two years but the formal outline (shown on p. 121) makes little provision for this. In fact this memoriter type of procedure recommended for the first two years of geography is carried on largely throughout the course. Among the final suggestions on methods for the last two years is this: "Lessons should be assigned with care, and the pupils held to a careful and exact preparation."[2]

We find the same "text book rehearsal" procedure in history which gives two years to "biographical history" and two to "narrative history." Problem history is unknown. For method in the 5th and 6th grades we have the following advice:

"Text books written from the biographic point of view may be used very sparingly in the fifth grade, more proficiently in the sixth, *but the great value of the work for these years will depend upon the teachers' power of story telling reproduced by the pupils orally in the fifth grade, first orally and then in written exercises in the sixth grade, or as soon as the pupils acquire a vivid interest.*[3] As an outcome of the work of these first two years in history pupils ought to be able to use a text book intelligently."[4]

The advice on method for the seventh and eighth years is limited to the following: "In the first few weeks ample time should be taken to show the pupils how to study the assigned text. A portion of the class time may be used by the teacher in reading choice historical selections. Pupils also should be encouraged to find interesting selections and to read them in the class."[5] A reference to the excerpt given on pages 123–4 will quickly demonstrate the

[1] Ibid., p. 5. [2] Geography syllabus, p. 13. [3] Italics are mine.
[4] Syllabus for Elementary Schools. American History, p. 1.
[5] Syllabus for Elementary Schools. American History, p. 26.

entire absence of any intention to provide for or encourage thinking.

The syllabus for arithmetic bears the earmarks of the period of its construction. Instead of the development of arithmetic out of an abundant experience with numbers, we find the following: "While drill in the facts of numbers during the early grades should be largely *in the abstract with few if any problems*, it is suggested that some concrete work in these combinations be given. Illustration: 5 dollars and 4 dollars are how many dollars?"[1] The author's conception of "concrete work" and the value of this advice to the teachers can be judged by the illustration given. The idea of 2 plus 2 is to be learned thus: "Give plenty of oral drill together with seat work and blackboard work like the following $\frac{253427}{422441}$ and have pupils get correct results by copying where necessary the results from the combinations placed upon the blackboard. . . . . " "Children should never be taught to count two groups to find the sum."[2]

In addition to being meager and out of date, the standards of procedure and methods in the different syllabi are not consistent. A quotation has already been given from geography (see page 142) concerning the child's lack of ability to reason until the 5th or 6th year of school. In contrast with this we find the following instructions in the physiology syllabus for grades 1–3. "Only enough instruction in anatomy should be given to enable the pupils to know the use and proper care of the important organs of the body."[3] It is evident that the child is supposed to appreciate "relations" here and to profit in habits and attitudes by knowing them. In this subject he is evidently a "reasoning being." Yet geography is fundamentally rational and hygiene is most concerned with specific habits. As a result of this effort to rationalize hygienic practices, the authors proceed to give a mass of physiological material which completely defeats the stated aim of a course in hygiene and almost compels on the part of the pupil a meaningless memorizing of physiological data.

[1] Elementary Syllabus. Arithmetic, p. 1. [2] Ibid., pp. 3–4.
[3] Course of Study and Syllabus for Elementary Schools 1910, p. 115.

Another illustration of the lack of a fundamental working principle for all syllabi is found in the following instance. In the history work for the fifth grade, in spite of the fact that they have had reading for four years and have been studying geography for two years, the students are unable to use a text in history. The authors say:

"Text books written from the biographic point of view may be used sparingly in the 5th grade, more proficiently in the sixth, *but the greatest value of the work in these years will depend upon the teachers' power of story telling.*"[1] . . . . . .These are to "be reproduced by the pupils orally in the fifth grade, first orally and then by written exercises in the sixth grade, or as soon as the pupils acquire a vivid interest. As an outcome of the work of these first two years in history, pupils ought to be able to use a text book intelligently."[2]

No more striking evidence of the futility and inaccuracy of this advice can be found than the concluding sentence in the preceding paragraph. It is little less than absurd to think that the procedure there advised will teach pupils *how to study*. It will teach them how to listen, not how to use a book, or it will teach them the art of text book repetition. What conception of an "intelligent use of the text" would a teacher get from such advice?

Evaluation with Reference to Rural School Conditions and Rural Teachers' Needs.—From the rural teacher's point of view the advice upon method is far too general and meager. The rural teacher's problem is most difficult as all well know. Limited training and experience, inadequate teaching equipment, poor physical conditions, inadequate supervision, many grades which necessitate relatively short periods and long undirected supervised study periods demand much of a curriculum if it would give the help a rural teacher needs. It should attempt to give all of the most essential principles of teaching for each subject. These must be given with such a simplicity and fullness of detail and illustration as to be comprehended by the average teacher. Abundance of seat work and educational activity for all subjects for the early

[1] Italics are mine.

[2] Syllabus for Elementary Schools. American History, p. 1.

grades is a real necessity. The materials chosen, the activities proposed, the references given must be given with consideration of her resources. When we consider the course of study in relation to its adequacy and its fitness to the rural teacher and the situation in which it is to be used, we find it absolutely unsatisfactory. A few instances will be sufficient to illustrate the point. The extreme lack can only be appreciated by a full reading of the syllabi and comparison between them and the more modern curricula for other states.

There is practically no help given in providing educative activity or seat work for children. The more progressive states give full outlines and abundant suggestions for enriching the work and providing seat work and educative activity in reading, number work, projects in coöperation, nature study, hygiene, local geography.[1] The courses of study of the more progressive states are veritable mines of suggestion and help in teaching little folk. In lieu of this in New York State we have abstract number from the beginning, fifteen lines of local geography, six of local history, scattered observations in nature study, physiological facts and memorizing in hygiene, practically nothing in reading, and a civics syllabus which the teacher has to remake in order to use it. This meagerness is characteristic of the entire course of study.

The directions that are given are not so explicit or so helpful as they might be. A few illustrations will be given.

In the outline for fourth year arithmetic in listing the work to be undertaken the following statement occurs:

"Problems in bills and accounts, especially when one of the factors is 12 or less, the extension of the products making up the sum to be done mentally."

Just what reaction would this secure from the rural teacher? No illustration is given of the meaning and most teachers would be confused rather than helped by the printed statement.

For the sixth year the teacher is given the following directions as to what to teach:

"Commission—using only practical and common problems."

[1] See state courses of study for Minnesota, Missouri, Baltimore Co., and North Carolina.

How is the rural teacher to know what are the "practical and common problems"?

In the outline for the seventh grade the teacher is told to "learn the business methods used by a mason, carpenter, paper hanger, painter, architect, banker, etc." The rural teacher who might wish to give the child some insight into the occupations of men through arithmetic would find little help in this general advice.

While the present state syllabus on Language and Literature is far better than those for other subjects, it fails in being not specific enough. It advises the teachers to dramatize the reading stories. In the reference list at the end of the section are the names of books on dramatization. This is excellent advice but many teachers have never seen stories dramatized and do not have access to the books. These teachers especially, all teachers somewhat, would be helped if several little dramatized stories were worked out for them. The poor teacher might, of course, use them just as they were and never change. But even then the children would be much better off. The good teacher would use these as a basis and soon through these examples develop many of her own. A course of study should leave the teacher free and encourage her to use that freedom, but no teacher will become free by being kept in ignorance.

The futility of the advice may be illustrated from other subjects. In the history syllabus the teacher reads:

"Of necessity the history teacher must make a wise selection of materials, search in many books for the best presentation of each selected topic and must often invent methods of presentation." To carry this out no specific help is given by stating guiding principles. Those who made the syllabus ignore their major function and shift the most difficult task to the shoulders of the busy teacher. In fact even the topics selected by those who make the history syllabus are poor examples.

Under the topic "method," for the fifth grade in civics this is given. One need only ask the question "What would a rural teacher get from this?"

1. Notebook to keep summaries and notes.
2. Scrap book.
3. Poetry and songs.

4. Correlation with
   a. Reading.
      Biographies suggested under Patriotism.
   b. Geography with emphasis upon New York State.
   c. Hygiene will give it more vital purpose.[1]

In the geography syllabus are these:

"Be simple, confine the children to the study of geography and do not go into details."[2]

"Lessons should be assigned with care and the pupils held to a careful and exact preparation."[3] In connection with this general statement one must notice that no type of assignment or recitation procedure is given in the entire set of syllabi.

"Great pains should be taken not to overdo this map work, but it is valuable training when judiciously used."[4]

From all of this it must be evident that in its method aspect the course of study is far from modern, scientific or effective.

A few additional words are needed about the organization of the material. It was said above that the work is not organized with relation to problems. The subject matter is to be learned. Even in civics where habits and attitudes are especially desired the work is organized for learning rather than with reference to problems and civic activity.

Within this formal organization small inconsistencies appear indicating either a lack of thought or the antiquated practice when the syllabi were written. For instance: fractions are postponed until the first half of the third year although formal arithmetic begins the first day of school. United States money is not begun until the first half of the fourth year.

The work of the first two years in history represents a random selection of characters in American history. The next to the last topic of the first year's work is "local history." This is taken up without any relation to what has preceded or what has followed.

The work in nature study for the first six grades is supposed to be organized around two key words, "recognition" for grades 1–3 and "adaptation" for grades 4–6. The work is not always consistent

[1] Syllabus on Civics and Patriotism, p. 26.
[2] Page 8. [3] Ibid., p. 13. [4] Ibid., p. 14.

with the key words. The suggestions given represent a hodge-podge of nature facts and random observations. The following is a typical illustration:[1]

Inquire as to what birds the pupils can tell by their song, by their colors, by the way they fly. (16:39, 59–86; 17:53–66.)

Have the children make a list of the wild flowers in the order of their blossoming. (16:177–84; 17:174–80.) If no wild flowers are near, make a list of the flowers of the garden and park.

Tell the children not to pick the flowers but see if seeds follow the blossoms.

Ask the pupils to observe the flowers of fruit trees and see which blossom first—apple, peach, plum or cherry. (16:231–32, 286–89; 17:173, 209.)

Discuss the order in which seeds are planted in the garden (16:184–86; 17:180–82, 282–93), and also the seeds that are planted in the house or in hot beds for later planting out of doors (16:185–86.)

Ask the pupils if they have seen any winter wheat this spring. Discuss its appearance, how it wintered, and the influence of good or poor wintering on the crop.

Talk about the cows, sheep and horses, asking when the cows are turned out to pasture, if there are sheep nearby, and why it is important to care for these animals.

Have the pupils ask the farmers what crops are planted at different times of the season (16:156–69; 172–75; 17:166–71), and if there has been enough or too much rainfall.

The most glaring defect and one that is quite inexcusable, is found in the history syllabus. As has been stated, the first two years of history are given to biographies. Between the work for the fifth and sixth years is found this statement:

Note.—In beginning the study of men of the Revolution much care and ample time must be taken to explain the meaning of the words used. Hitherto the lives of men of action have been studied; now it becomes necessary to consider to some extent the work of men of thought.[2]

[1] Part of outline for spring work for second grade. The syllabus consists of 19 pages of such material. Syllabus for Nature Study, p. 9.

[2] Syllabus for the Elementary School. American History, p. 13.

If we examine the list of "men of action" we find among them Benjamin Franklin and William Penn. In the group representing "men of thought" we find John Paul Jones, Philip Schuyler, and Daniel Boone.

The above facts indicate the status of the New York State curriculum for elementary schools with reference to the organization of the materials and the methods of teaching. On the whole, it is out of date in method, inconsistent in the advice given in the different syllabi, sometimes illogical, too brief and vague to be helpful, and often poorly organized.

### 4. As to Construction

The curriculum for New York State is in a rather confused state of being. The basic syllabus covering all subjects was issued in 1910. Since them the following editions for single subjects have been issued:

No date.—Arithmetic issued in separate form but unchanged.

1917. Geography issued in separate form but unchanged.

1918. Nature Study, Humaneness, Elementary Agriculture and Homemaking issued. (Extensive revision of 1910 syllabus.)

1919. American History issued in separate form. Unchanged except for the addition of three pages on the more recent history.

1919. Elementary Syllabus in English Language and Literature. (Extensive revision of 1910 syllabus.)

1920. Civics and Patriotism—issued for the first time.

1920. Music.

1921. Physical Training—issued for the first time.

In addition to the above issues, a revision of the course of study on physiology has been made and is at this writing in the hands of the printer. The assistant commissioner of elementary education reports that committees have been appointed to undertake the revision of the syllabi for history, geography, and arithmetic. No actual work has as yet been accomplished. Finally the Board of

Regents have approved the appointment of a committee "for the purpose of preparing a new elementary syllabus for the rural schools which will relate the work of the schools more closely to the community interests and make use of the rich agricultural background as a basis for much of the content material."

In the construction of a curriculum, the major educational purposes should be defined by the state. In this state that has been done *in so far as there is any defined aim.* The syllabi have been constructed under state direction. The standards by which the results of the elementary school are evaluated are found in the statewide preliminary examinations prepared under the direction of the State Board of Regents. In purpose and standards, therefore, rural elementary education is directly under the control of the state.[1] But while the responsibility is assumed by the proper agent, the task, as has been shown, is most unsatisfactorily done.

Certain features of the plan of procedure in constructing courses of study are a step in the right direction. The general practice has been to appoint a committee on each section of the course of study, composed of representatives from the various sections of our educational organization among whom is the department specialist. The work is done by the committee, reported to the department, put in galley form and submitted for criticism to several teachers and superintendents. The material is then revised in accordance with the criticisms and finally published.

The first weakness in this procedure, from the point of view of rural schools, is in the composition of the committee as will be seen from a study of the following list.

1. Civics and Patriotism:
    1. Mr. E. P. Smith, North Tonawanda High School, Chairman.
    2. Miss Mabel Skinner, Washington Irving High School, New York City.
    3. Miss Julia Ver Planck, Hunter College, New York City.

[1] In actual fact there is a logical provision which permits each district to make its own course of study. This provision is, according to Dr. Judd's report, either unknown or quite neglected.

2. English Language and Literature:
    1. Mr. R. T. Congdon, Chairman.
    2. Prof. Calvin L. Lewis, Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y.
    3. Mr. L. F. Hodge, Associate Superintendent of Schools, Yonkers, N. Y.
    4. Mr. H. DeW. DeGroat, Principal State Normal School, Cortland, N. Y.
    5. Miss Jean Y. Zyer, Principal Grade School, White Plains, N. Y.
    6. Dr. James S. Cooley, District Superintendent of Schools, Mineola, N. Y.
    7. Miss Marion E. Tobey, Director of Primary Grades, Ithaca, N. Y.

The district superintendent on this committee contributed nothing to the present syllabus.

3. Music:
    1. Dr. Hollis Dann, Director Department of Music, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
    2. Miss Julia Crane, Crane Normal School of Music and Instructor in Music, Potsdam State Normal.
    3. Dr. Herbert S. Weat, Superintendent of Schools, Rochester, N. Y.
    4. Dr. Frank R. Rix, Director of Music, New York City.

4. Physical Training was prepared under the direction of the Military Training Commission. Many people rendered assistance, but the following were most active:
    1. Dr. Thomas A. Story. Inspector of Physical Training for the State Military Training Commission.
    2. Dr. George J. Fisher, Deputy Chief Scout Executive of the Boy Scouts of America.
    3. F. A. Woll, Acting Director, Department of Hygiene, College of the City of New York.

5. Hygiene:
    1. Supt. D. J. Kelly, Binghamton, Chairman.
    2. Miss Edith Walker, Director Health Education, Oswego State Normal.
    3. Dr. Franklin W. Barrows, Assistant Medical Inspector, State Department of Education.
    4. Herman J. Norton, Director of Physical Education, Rochester.

6. Nature Study and Humaneness:
    1. E. M. Tuttle, College of Agriculture, Ithaca, N. Y.
    2. G. A. Bailey, State Normal School, Geneseo.
    3. Dr. Charles E. Groton, Superintendent of Schools, Yonkers.

7. Agriculture and Homemaking:
    1. F. L. Griffin, Leader of Junior Extension, College of Agriculture, Ithaca, N. Y.
    2. A. K. Getman, State Supervisor of Agricultural Education in Secondary Schools.

These are typical of the committee members responsible for our syllabi. Only in the committees on Nature Study and Agriculture and English are the rural school needs at all represented. Even this representation is far from ideal. The elementary school itself is directly represented only through a single district superintendent. From our point of view the rural teacher and rural supervisor should contribute largely to the making of a course of study. The difficulty to find some one now working in rural schools or with rural teachers who is competent to do such work is recognized. It seems certain, however, that the fullest possible use of available resources was not made. The almost entire absence of anyone representing them would seem to indicate this.

The purpose of the curriculum is to insure for the child an education in keeping with the best present standards, and for the guidance and help of the teacher, to enable him to give his pupils the educational opportunity that should be theirs. While its primary aim is to serve the children, it does so mainly by guiding the teacher. The curriculum is his hand book. It should render him every possible assistance. The curriculum *for rural schools* should be *suited to rural schools*. A curriculum may seem all right when viewed from some central office. It may be very helpful to the city teachers with their single grades, their better training, their better teaching equipment, their library facilities and their closer, more expert supervision. These are, however, no measure of its value for rural schools or of its fitness for rural children. To be acceptable to them, it must be suited to the rural-school needs and conditions, be written so the rural teacher can understand it and use it profitably.

In New York State before a course of study is put in final form it is submitted to the teachers for suggestions and corrections. Apparently this might be sufficient to accomplish the end stated above. Actually it is not. Only a few, the more aggressive, will either feel free to criticize, capable of doing so, or will overcome the inertia characteristic of most of us. A few good criticisms were offered of the English Syllabus but these were by people specializing in this work in normal schools, or city systems. The number of total replies were few, dealing mostly with small details of punctuation, references, etc. There was practically no response from the rural force. Such criticism must be sought diligently. But this criticism after the work is done is not enough. The committee must include a more representative group. Rural teachers and supervisors must be a part of the constructing machine. Only in this way will their experience be properly utilized. This encouragement of testing and criticism is especially needed in New York State where the spirit of authority has so characterized the state system that teachers are little given to think for themselves. (See the reports on teachers' attitude toward the course of study, p. 175.) Yet this somewhat formal request for criticism practically measures the efforts of the state to secure reactions from the field. It is not enough. The state should institute a general program looking toward a careful experimentation with each separate syllabus with the avowed purpose of revealing weak and strong points. District superintendents should be charged with this responsibility and given every assistance needed to carry on the work. Each teacher should be stimulated to weigh critically each feature of the printed course and report his findings.

Someone having in mind the complaints of rural teachers may think that they criticize too much already. This attitude often does exist in the presence of strong centralized control with little opportunity for creative work, and with desires impossible of realization under existing conditions. It is fully recognized also that much of this criticism, resulting from an unguided study of the curriculum is often mere fault finding. Moreover, the teacher being helpless to change things, may become bitter or indifferent.

But this need not be the case. It is a result of our unhealthful

educational situation. The creative impulse back of most of this suppressed criticism may be made to redound to the benefit both of the teacher and of the curriculum. If each teacher were made to feel responsible for a careful study and trial of some section in which he has either a special interest or ability or both, it would stimulate him and change his point of view. The new point of view and initiative realized in this particular phase must spread to his other teaching with highly desirable results. Moreover, the results of such studies would furnish the state excellent materials for evaluating its printed course.

It is worth noting here that the type of procedure here contemplated and the results demanded are almost entirely dependent upon a teacher more highly trained and specifically prepared for rural teaching, and even more dependent upon an expert type of rural supervision. No mere inspection and reporting of conditions will succeed. This creative work, the fine art of building a curriculum suited to rural children's conditions and needs, calls for the highest type of technical ability and professional leadership.

No state curriculum, however carefully those responsible for its construction may have considered rural school conditions and needs, would be found to suit completely any particular school. The curriculum must be adjusted by the teacher to local conditions. She must utilize local resources, select vital problems, organize new materials, create educative experiences for her children. The state should exercise greater leadership in this field.

Again, no matter how carefully a course of study in any subject is prepared it is soon out of date in some respects. Education as a science is advancing rapidly. No course of study should remain static. The findings of modern research and the improvements that follow from the creative work of classroom teachers should be at once utilized in improving the course of study and teaching.

It is in these last two features, the more variable, progressive and constructive aspects, that the procedure of the state is most at fault. It is stated in several instances in the syllabus that the teacher should look upon it as suggestive and seek to adjust it to local conditions. However, the spirit of supervision and the effect of the state system of examinations practically nullify any attempt

to change the curriculum or to carry on creative work. Once established the curriculum becomes static, is looked upon as final. Changes in educational values, principles of teaching and improved practices are transferred with only greatest difficulty into the courses of study and educational practice for New York State.

A few features of the method of curriculum building in the state are in the right direction, but they are almost nullified by accompanying defects. Not only is the machinery at serious fault but the state is quite lacking in leadership looking toward the creation of a wide-awake body of teachers and supervisors critically using and reconstructing the curriculum, the very life blood of our school system.

### 5. As to Organization and Administration

The curriculum should deal not only with the more professional aspects of a teacher's work but should help in the problems of distribution of time, school organization and management.

One function of the curriculum is to distribute the subjects throughout the grades. In what grades should certain studies be begun? How long should they continue?

Educators are quite generally agreed that arithmetic should not be formally begun until the *second year*. New York State begins it at once. This involves a second question. What is the standard achievement for each grade? Since the New York syllabus has not been revised in the fundamental topics since 1910, one is not surprised to find no mention of standard achievement scores. Since they did not have these as a check and since they did begin early, the requirements for the early grades in arithmetic are too severe. At the end of the first grade the child is supposed to know the 45 addition combinations so taught as "to prepare for subtraction as well as addition." At the end of the second year the child should know the "45 combinations in multiplication" so taught as to prepare for "division at the same time that multiplication is taught," and at the close of the third year's work the pupils should be able to "add, subtract, multiply, and divide numbers with accuracy and facility."[1] This extreme demand for skill in arith-

[1] Elementary syllabus. Arithmetic, pp. 1–8.

metic persists throughout the first six grades. The pressure put upon the teacher and children to accomplish this aim is realized when it is compared with the standard set by the Courtis test. This early overemphasis may partly account for the relatively better showing of rural children in arithmetic.[1]

The growing appreciation of the rights of primary children to a richer content and the possibilities for real education during these years has led in other states to the introduction of many new lines of activity in the lower grades. In our most progressive schools, geography, history, civics, nature study, hygiene, drawing, and industrial activity are all receiving attention in the early grades. New York State provides definite courses in civics, nature study and hygiene, good or poor as these may be, for the lower grades. Geography and history begin in the third and fifth respectively. But both are formal courses from the beginning.

Provision for an enriched curriculum for the early grades is one of the major needs in New York State. In this undertaking the utmost care is needed in suiting it to the school conditions and the child's ability. The present courses in civics, hygiene and nature study should be revised for the primary grades in keeping with modern principles and practices. Work in local geography, local history and practical arts should be developed. Nor should these be introduced into the rural schools as separate courses. It is not wise pedagogically or possible in the rural school situation to try to differentiate these fields. A general course including all these should be constructed for the elementary rural school. A teacher might well be made aware, through proper outlines, just which of these facts would bear upon later geography, which would enlighten history, which would form a basis for hygiene and sanitation, etc. The child might well be blissfully ignorant of such differentiation and be concerned wholly with the experience as a single unitary fact. This would vitalize the content, improve the method and facilitate the work of the over-burdened teacher.

There is reason to believe that geography should be extended into the seventh grade, at least until we realize a junior high school organization. It is without doubt one of the fundamental socializ-

[1] Rural School Survey of N. Y. State, pp. 157, 163.

ing studies. The old type of location geography has given way to a rational geography. The questions considered in modern geography lead one into fundamental problems of modern politics, commerce and industry. The reasoning demanded by the present day subject matter and methods demands more mature minds. As a content study it would serve to enrich the work of the upper grades.

Distribution of Time.—The problem of distribution of teacher and pupil effort is not limited merely to the questions of the years in which certain studies should be given. How much time should be given to the various subjects? What proportion of the day should be spent upon reading, arithmetic, geography? Of the amount of time given to reading, how much should be given to the first grade, the second, the third? What proportion of the whole day should be given to the first grade, the fifth or the eighth? These are very practical questions, difficult to answer, yet every teacher must answer them for his school. For answering these questions the state gives no help whatever. The results of the unguided efforts of teachers are, as one might expect, variable and very often unwise from the point of view of education. Many, of course, distribute their time in terms of the needs of the pupils. Others follow some established custom. Still others, and there is reason to believe their number is many, sacrifice other subjects in order to drill upon those that immediately precede examinations.

In undertaking this aspect of the study, blanks were sent out to the rural teachers through the assistance of the district superintendents. The blank required nothing more than that the teacher record the amount of time per week that each grade spent in recitation on each subject. Where two grades recited together, e. g., fourth and fifth grade history, the time for recitation was recorded for each grade. When two subjects were regularly combined, e. g., language and nature study, both were credited.

In connection with this problem three questions were considered:

a. How much of the time do the different grades spend under the teacher's direction (in recitation)?

b. What proportion of the total school day is given to the different subjects?

c. How is the recitation time given to any grade distributed among the subjects?

The problem is complicated by the fact that the different schools do not have the same grades or the same number of grades. Thinking that the number of grades in school might affect the distribution of time between grades, the teachers' reports were grouped as follows: 1. Schools having four grades present. 2. Schools having five grades present. 3. Schools having six grades present. 4. Schools having seven grades present. 5. Schools having all grades present.

(A) Distribution of Time Among Grades.—The record of the distribution of time among grades and for the variation in amount of time given to any one grade is given below. The records for schools having only four grades or eight grades present are not given in the table. The summary of the results for all schools will be found in the next table.

A striking fact in Table 67 is the extreme variability in the amount of the time spent in recitation by any one grade. Some teachers by grouping classes are able to have the pupils under their direct guidance much longer than teachers having the same number of grades in school. Part of this variation is due to the difference in the needs of particular grades in a school. Different grades in different schools are needing extra attention. Then, again, teachers have preferences, and, having no standards of time distribution, stress that grade whose work appeals.

A fact worth noting in Table 68 is the fairly constant median for any grade whether four or more grades were present. This may be explained by the tendency to group classes when the number of grades increases. In this report all grades of a group received full credit if they were treated as a unit.

Again from Table 68 we see that the rural teachers of New York State follow the common tendency and give the major portion of their time to the upper grades,[1] even though the children of the lower grades are more dependent upon the teacher's help and guidance.

[1] Cf. C. M. Reinoehl, Journal of Rural Education, Oct., 1921, p. 55.

## Table 67.—Distribution of Time Among Grades

| Minutes per week | Five grades present | | | | | | | | Six grades present | | | | | | | | Seven grades present | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 100 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 125 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 |
| 150 | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. |
| 175 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 200 | 3 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 2 | .. | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 |
| 225 | 2 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 4 | 3 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 3 | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | 2 | .. | 1 |
| 250 | 8 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .. | .. | 6 | 6 | 2 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | 2 | 1 | 6 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | .. | 1 |
| 275 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 4 | 8 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 | .. | 1 | 7 | 4 | 4 | 2 | .. | 1 | .. | .. |
| 300 | 4 | 5 | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 3 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 2 | .. | 2 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 1 | .. | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 325 | 5 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 8 | 8 | 4 | 2 | 2 | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | 6 | 5 | 3 | 4 | 3 | .. | 4 | .. |
| 350 | 5 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 6 | .. | 2 | 7 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | .. | 4 | 7 | 6 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 2 | .. |
| 375 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 8 | 9 | 9 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 7 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 |
| 400 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 5 | 1 | 3 | .. | 3 | .. | 3 | 5 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 3 |
| 425 | 1 | 5 | 4 | 7 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 6 | 3 | 3 | .. | .. | .. | 2 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 2 |
| 450 | 2 | 1 | 7 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 3 | .. | .. | 6 | 8 | 8 | 4 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 5 | 7 | 5 | 2 | 2 |
| 475 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 4 | .. | 1 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 6 | 4 | 2 | 1 | .. | 3 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| 500 | 2 | .. | 2 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 1 | .. | 1 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 3 |
| 525 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | .. | .. | 1 | 3 | 4 | 7 | 3 | 4 | .. | 1 | 2 | .. | 2 | 1 | 3 | 1 |
| 550 | 1 | .. | 2 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 7 | 3 | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | 2 | 2 | 6 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 |
| 575 | 1 | 1 | .. | 2 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 | .. | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | 1 |
| 600 | 1 | .. | 1 | 3 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .. | 2 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 625 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 2 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | .. |
| 650 | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 1 | .. | 2 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | 1 |
| 675 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 1 |
| 700 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. |
| 725 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. |
| 750 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .. | .. | .. |
| 775 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 800 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. |
| 825 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. |
| 850 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 875 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 900 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. |

TABLE 68.—SUMMARY OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF TIME AMONG GRADES

| Number grades present | Grade | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | I | II | III | IV | V | VI | VII | VIII |
| Four | | | | | | | | |
| Variation in minutes per week | 230–590 | 145–630 | 295–550 | 350–550 | 440–815 | 435–690 | 355–765 | 310–815 |
| Median | 340 | 350 | 412 | 490 | 645 | 492 | 520 | 480 |
| Five | | | | | | | | |
| Variation | 145–600 | 195–615 | 130–630 | 275–635 | 320–775 | 200–680 | 310–765 | 225–615 |
| Median | 325 | 355 | 435 | 425 | 505 | 497 | 495 | 445 |
| Six | | | | | | | | |
| Variation | 145–645 | 120–550 | 185–610 | 245–625 | 240–625 | 295–670 | 295–840 | 175–840 |
| Median | 320 | 310 | 365 | 420 | 430 | 437 | 465 | 440 |
| Seven | | | | | | | | |
| Variation | 115–510 | 75–510 | 140–705 | 160–890 | 235–780 | 440–715 | 140–810 | 124–675 |
| Median | 320 | 320 | 365 | 400 | 432 | 435 | 445 | 435 |
| Eight | | | | | | | | |
| Variation | 180–440 | 105–420 | 180–425 | 185–495 | 180–650 | 180–725 | 150–685 | 175–635 |
| Median | 325 | 315 | 335 | 370 | 425 | 465 | 465 | 420 |
| Average Median | 326 | 330 | 382 | 421 | 428 | 465 | 498 | 444 |

In terms of amount of time spent in recitation the different grades rank as follows, that one having the most being put first:

TABLE 69.—RANK OF GRADES IN DISTRIBUTION OF TIME

| Rank | 4 grades present | | 5 grades | | 6 grades | | 7 grades | | 8 grades | | Average | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Grade | Median | Grade | Median | Grade | Median | Grade | Median | Grade | Median | Grade | Median |
| 1 | V | 645 | V | 505 | VII | 465 | VII | 445 | VII | 465 | VII | 498 |
| 2 | VII | 520 | VI | 497 | VIII | 440 | VI | 435 | VI | 465 | VI | 465 |
| 3 | VI | 492 | VII | 495 | VI | 437 | VIII | 435 | V | 425 | VIII | 444 |
| 4 | IV | 490 | VIII | 445 | V | 430 | V | 432 | VIII | 420 | V | 428 |
| 5 | VIII | 480 | III | 435 | IV | 420 | IV | 400 | IV | 370 | IV | 421 |
| 6 | III | 412 | IV | 425 | III | 365 | III | 365 | III | 335 | III | 382 |
| 7 | II | 350 | II | 355 | I | 320 | II | 320 | I | 325 | II | 330 |
| 8 | I | 340 | I | 325 | II | 310 | I | 320 | II | 315 | I | 326 |

There may be several elements influencing this situation. Teachers are not trained to work at length with children. Upper grade work is more interesting and time consuming. The sixth and seventh and eighth grades in New York State are grades in which pupils are preparing for the Regents examinations. This work receives unusual attention. The eighth grade ranks lowest of these

three. This is likely due to a smaller number of pupils in it and to the fact that, since the pupils have passed Regents' examinations in several subjects, these are often dropped. The eighth grade pupil often limits his work to a very few subjects.

(B) Distribution of Time Between Subjects.—The second question to be raised concerned the distribution of time between subjects. The reports were grouped according to the *number of grades present*. No school with less than four grades was considered. The time in minutes per week given to reading by teachers having four grades was recorded on a scale. The same was done for schools having 5, 6, 7 and 8 grades.

In geography and history, since these subjects are assigned to a limited number of grades, it was thought best to group the records here according to *number of grades taking the work* rather than according to *number of grades present*. It is possible to have four grades in school yet none taking history. In such a case the variation between schools having the same number of grades would not be significant.

It is not possible to present the full data. The group containing the largest number, e. g., schools having 5, 6 and 7 grades present, have been selected.

Table 70 shows that schools having the same number of grades vary greatly in the amount of time given to any one subject. In reading, for instance, one teacher having four grades gives 110 minutes per week to it, another gives 600. These teachers may not, however, have the same grades. The former may have 1, 3, 6, and 8; the latter 1, 2, 4, 5. Since reading is not so commonly given in the upper grades (see p. 158) this difference in amount of time given might be due to the difference in number of grades taking the subject. Some evidence in support of this is found in a study of the variability in arithmetic. Practically every grade in school takes arithmetic in New York State (see p. 158). In this subject the variability for schools having the same number of grades is reduced slightly. On the other hand, spelling, writing, and drawing, which are likewise commonly given to all grades present (see p. 158) show a variability equal to that in reading. Moreover, the variability among teachers having all eight grades and, therefore, the

TABLE 70.—VARIABILITY IN DISTRIBUTION OF TIME AMONG SUBJECTS

| | Reading | | | Arithmetic | | | English | | | Spelling | | | Writing | | | Hygiene | | | Civics | | | Nature Study | | | Drawing | | | Music | | | Geography | | | History | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 0 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 4 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 25 | 17 | 19 | 6 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 43 | 46 | 33 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 25 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 3 | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 50 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5 | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 8 | 8 | 1 | 8 | 14 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 4 | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 75 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 11 | 10 | 7 | 7 | 5 | 2 | 8 | 9 | 3 | .. | 7 | 3 | .. | 2 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | 2 | 1 | .. |
| 100 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 7 | 5 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 6 | 8 | 5 | 5 | 8 | 1 | 11 | 9 | 3 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 3 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 14 | 4 | .. |
| 125 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 8 | 8 | 2 | 4 | .. | 1 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 9 | 9 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 3 | .. | .. | 18 | 2 | .. |
| 150 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 6 | 16 | 6 | 3 | 8 | .. | 8 | 7 | 4 | 1 | .. | 1 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 11 | 4 | 4 | .. | 3 | 1 | 13 | 1 | 1 | 38 | 11 | 2 |
| 175 | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 4 | 6 | 2 | 1 | .. | 2 | .. | 3 | 3 | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | 4 | 1 | 3 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 10 | 2 | .. | 3 | 5 | 1 |
| 200 | .. | 3 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | 13 | 10 | 3 | 2 | 5 | 2 | 5 | 2 | 5 | .. | 2 | .. | 1 | 8 | .. | 5 | 10 | 4 | .. | 2 | .. | 8 | 10 | 1 | 3 | 10 | 1 |
| 225 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 4 | 5 | 1 | 5 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 7 | .. | .. | 1 | 4 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 10 | 4 |
| 250 | 5 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 3 | .. | 5 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 7 | 13 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 2 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 1 | .. | 2 | .. | .. | 19 | 9 | 3 | .. | 6 | 1 |
| 275 | 6 | 5 | .. | 3 | 4 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 6 | 2 | .. | .. | 2 | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | 3 | 6 | 2 | .. | 3 | 3 |
| 300 | 3 | 8 | 1 | 6 | 10 | 2 | 9 | 7 | 5 | 2 | 5 | 4 | 4 | 7 | 4 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .. | 2 | 5 | 5 | 1 | .. | 5 | .. | .. | 17 | 4 | 1 | .. | 4 |
| 325 | 6 | 2 | .. | 7 | 5 | 3 | 9 | 8 | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | 6 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | 1 |
| 350 | .. | 6 | 3 | 6 | 5 | 3 | 11 | 15 | 5 | .. | 2 | 2 | .. | 5 | 11 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 3 | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | 3 | .. | 1 | .. |
| 375 | 6 | 3 | 6 | 10 | 10 | 7 | 3 | 3 | 6 | .. | .. | .. | 3 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 4 | .. | .. | .. |
| 400 | 3 | 5 | 3 | 7 | 7 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .. | .. | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. |
| 425 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 10 | .. | 1 | 2 | .. | 1 | 2 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 |
| 450 | 7 | 5 | 6 | 4 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 9 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 475 | 3 | .. | 3 | .. | 1 | 3 | .. | 2 | 3 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 500 | 5 | 5 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 525 | 2 | 1 | .. | 1 | 2 | 3 | .. | 1 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. |
| 550 | 1 | 2 | 1 | .. | .. | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 575 | 1 | 3 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 600 | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 625 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 650 | .. | .. | 2 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 675 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 700 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 725 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 750 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 775 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 800 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 825 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 850 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |

same grades, is on the whole greater than for teachers having fewer grades.

Since geography and history were grouped according to number of grades taking the subject, the variation in time spent by teachers having the *same number of recitations per day* in each subject may be seen in the record for these subjects. The results show a smaller variation yet one that is scarcely commendable. The variation for all teachers having five grades reciting in geography is from 145 minutes per week to 575 or a difference of 430 minutes per week. One teacher gives four times as much of her recitation time to geography as another. Evidently variability in amount of time given to a subject by teachers is due largely to difference in opinions, personal preference, or chance, rather than to a common standard wisely applied to situations containing different elements.

The median time for all schools in minutes per week spent in recitation upon any subject is given below.

TABLE 71.—DISTRIBUTION OF TIME AMONG SUBJECTS

| Subject | Median time in minutes per week spent in recitation[1] |
|---|---|
| Reading | 398 |
| Arithmetic | 377 |
| English | 327 |
| Writing | 299 |
| Geography | 201 |
| Spelling | 194 |
| History | 149 |
| Drawing | 149 |
| Nature Study | 116 |
| Hygiene | 112 |
| Civics | 24 |
| Music | 0 |

These figures do not take account of incidental teaching or of the relative amount of time spent in preparation of lessons. The 116 minutes a week given to nature study includes nearly all the time given to it. The same is true for civics, drawing, music and for much of hygiene. With perhaps the exception of spelling, the subjects now receiving the major part of the recitation time also receive the greater amount of preparation. The record serves to show how

[1] This median is found from the total number of records. The preceding table omitted the data from certain schools.

much of the school's time is spent in the "tool" subjects, reading, writing, arithmetic, language and spelling. Enrichment of the rural curriculum through a greater emphasis upon content subjects is sorely needed.

(C) Distribution of Time between Subjects within Individual Grades.—The same need for a better distribution of time is shown in the study of the work by individual grades. Space does not permit printing the records for all eight grades. The individual records for grades one, four and seven are given in Tables 72–74. In Table 75 is given the summary for all grades.

Table 72.—Distribution of Time by Subjects for Grade I

| Time per week | Reading | Arithmetic | History | Geography | English | Spelling | Writing | Hygiene | Civics | Nature Study | Drawing | Music |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | .. | .. | 165 | 155 | 42 | 89 | 26 | 76 | 135 | 76 | 59 | 126 |
| .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 2 | .. |
| 10 | .. | 1 | .. | 3 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 26 | 10 | 12 | 8 | 7 |
| .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 4 | 9 | 4 | 13 | 2 | 11 | 5 | 3 |
| 20 | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | 13 | 6 | 5 | 10 | 6 | 19 | 16 | 6 |
| .. | 2 | 8 | .. | 2 | 13 | 32 | 15 | 11 | 3 | 7 | 9 | 7 |
| 30 | .. | 2 | .. | 2 | 8 | 8 | 10 | 14 | 3 | 22 | 31 | 2 |
| .. | .. | 4 | .. | .. | 2 | 3 | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | 4 | .. |
| 40 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 8 | 1 | .. | 2 | 5 | .. |
| 50 | 17 | 80 | .. | .. | 50 | 10 | 45 | 2 | 1 | 5 | 8 | 11 |
| 60 | 5 | 6 | .. | .. | 9 | 1 | 5 | 1 | .. | 2 | 10 | 1 |
| .. | .. | 4 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. |
| 70 | 1 | 2 | .. | .. | 17 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| .. | 13 | 40 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 22 | 1 | .. | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 80 | 3 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 90 | 1 | 3 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 100 | 55 | 11 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 11 | .. | .. | 1 | 4 | .. |
| 10 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. |
| 20 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| .. | 12 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 30 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 40 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 50 | 35 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 60 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 70 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 80 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 90 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 200 | 9 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| Over 200 | 6 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| Total. | 165 | 165 | 165 | 165 | 165 | 165 | 165 | 165 | 165 | 165 | 165 | 165 |

Two facts are evidenced from these tables. The variation of time given to any subject in any grade by different teachers is ex-

treme. The record for the first grade (Table 72) shows that two teachers give 25 minutes per week to reading while a third gives 300. One teacher gave first grade children 10 minutes per week in arithmetic while another gave 150. In the fourth grade (Table 73) eight teachers gave no time to geography, nine teachers gave 100 minutes or more. In the seventh grade (Table 74) three teachers gave no time to spelling, 44 gave 50 minutes per week, 11 gave 75

TABLE 73.—DISTRIBUTION OF TIME BY SUBJECTS FOR GRADE IV

| Time per week | Reading | Arithmetic | History | Geography | English | Spelling | Writing | Hygiene | Civics | Nature Study | Drawing | Music |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| .. | 1 | 3 | 142 | 8 | 4 | 3 | 13 | 19 | 110 | 23 | 22 | 114 |
| .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 1 | .. |
| 10 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 7 | 16 | 9 | 10 | 7 | 6 |
| .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 6 | 5 | 23 | 5 | 16 | 10 | 3 |
| 20 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 7 | 6 | 13 | 6 | 27 | 18 | 3 |
| .. | 3 | .. | .. | 2 | 4 | 52 | 9 | 12 | 4 | 10 | 9 | 4 |
| 30 | 1 | 1 | .. | 3 | 6 | 7 | 15 | 31 | 5 | 34 | 37 | 2 |
| .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2 | .. |
| 40 | 5 | 3 | 1 | 10 | 6 | 9 | 4 | 8 | 1 | 1 | 7 | .. |
| .. | 2 | 2 | .. | 1 | .. | 2 | 10 | 7 | .. | 3 | 7 | 1 |
| 50 | 43 | 53 | 1 | 53 | 63 | 43 | 38 | 7 | 2 | 8 | 9 | 9 |
| .. | .. | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 60 | 7 | 6 | 1 | 3 | 9 | 5 | 10 | 2 | .. | 3 | 7 | 1 |
| .. | 2 | 6 | .. | 5 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. |
| 70 | 2 | 1 | .. | 2 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .. | .. |
| .. | 41 | 54 | .. | 46 | 42 | 6 | 19 | 3 | .. | 3 | 3 | 2 |
| 80 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. |
| .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 90 | 3 | 1 | .. | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | .. |
| 100 | 22 | 10 | .. | 7 | 4 | .. | 5 | 1 | .. | 1 | 3 | .. |
| 110 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| .. | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 120 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| .. | 6 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 130 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 140 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 150 | 6 | 2 | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 160 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 170 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| Totals. | 145 | 145 | 145 | 145 | 145 | 145 | 145 | 145 | 145 | 145 | 145 | 145 |

minutes and one gave 100. Some variation is desirable because need of emphasis changes with the school. The results here, however, can scarcely be justified upon such principle.

The second fact to be noted is the relative distribution of time among subjects for any grade. The record for the first grade indicates that in the 165 schools reporting all children take reading

and arithmetic. No school offers history, only 7.2 percent give geography, only about one school in five offers any civics or music.

These data upon the distribution of time between subjects for any one grade, together with that upon distribution of time between subjects and between grades reveal, in the extreme variability within any single unit and in the practice in total distribution, a situation demanding careful study. Just what is best in general

TABLE 74.—DISTRIBUTION OF TIME BY SUBJECTS FOR GRADE VII

| Time per week | Reading | Arithmetic | History | Geography | English | Spelling | Writing | Hygiene | Civics | Nature Study | Drawing | Music |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| .. | 74 | 5 | 3 | 27 | 1 | 3 | 11 | 12 | 60 | 17 | 21 | 102 |
| .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 10 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5 | 8 | 6 | 8 | 4 | 5 |
| .. | 4 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 6 | 28 | 12 | 23 | 11 | 3 |
| 20 | 4 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 7 | 6 | 12 | 21 | 18 | 12 | 4 |
| .. | 2 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 39 | 10 | 15 | 10 | 10 | 7 | 5 |
| 30 | 8 | .. | 3 | 2 | .. | 11 | 18 | 27 | 14 | 34 | 43 | .. |
| .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 2 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 40 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 6 | 4 | 3 | 7 | 8 | 5 | 1 | 8 | .. |
| .. | 2 | 2 | 4 | .. | .. | 2 | 11 | 6 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 1 |
| 50 | 16 | 21 | 22 | 13 | 26 | 44 | 27 | 8 | 1 | 7 | 4 | 10 |
| .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. |
| 60 | 5 | 9 | 8 | 2 | 8 | 6 | 8 | 4 | .. | 3 | 10 | 1 |
| .. | 1 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. |
| 70 | .. | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .. | .. |
| .. | 8 | 57 | 59 | 58 | 58 | 11 | 17 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 1 |
| 80 | .. | 2 | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 90 | .. | .. | 3 | 3 | 2 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | .. |
| 100 | 4 | 22 | 16 | 10 | 18 | 1 | 3 | 1 | .. | 1 | 3 | .. |
| 10 | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 20 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| .. | .. | 6 | 1 | 2 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 30 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 40 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 50 | .. | 3 | 3 | 1 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 60 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 70 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 80 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| Totals. | 133 | 133 | 133 | 133 | 133 | 133 | 133 | 133 | 133 | 133 | 133 | 133 |

one cannot say. The tendency to overemphasize the upper grade work and to stress the formal studies is not in keeping with modern educational theory. The tendency in New York State to neglect the content subjects in the early grades is especially to be criticized. In this whole field further research as to the best type of daily program, organization of work and distribution of time is necessary.

TABLE 75.—DISTRIBUTION OF TIME AMONG SUBJECTS FOR INDIVIDUAL GRADES

| | Reading | Arithmetic | History | Geography | English | Spelling | Writing | Hygiene | Civics | Nature Study | Drawing | Music |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Grade I. Total number of schools having 1st grade, 165** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| No. *not* taking | .. | .. | 165 | 153 | 39 | 85 | 24 | 75 | 129 | 75 | 58 | 126 |
| Variation | 25–300 | 10–150 | .. | 5–40 | 5–100 | 5–80 | 5–235 | 5–75 | 5–50 | 5–100 | 5–110 | 10–75 |
| Median for all | 100 | 50 | .. | .. | 40 | .. | 50 | 10 | .. | 10 | 20 | .. |
| **Grade II. Total number of schools having 2d grade, 143** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| No. *not* taking | 2 | 1 | 143 | 125 | 25 | 18 | 13 | 55 | 112 | 62 | 43 | 112 |
| Variation | 25–200 | 25–100 | .. | 10–100 | 10–150 | 10–80 | 5–225 | 5–50 | 5–50 | 5–100 | 2–115 | 10–75 |
| Median for all | 100 | 50 | .. | .. | 40 | 25 | 50 | 10 | .. | 10 | 20 | .. |
| **Grade III. Total number of schools having 3d grade, 133** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| No. *not* taking | 2 | 3 | 133 | 48 | 9 | 6 | 9 | 31 | 95 | 31 | 25 | 104 |
| Variation | 25–300 | 25–175 | .. | 10–100 | 15–100 | 10–80 | 5–150 | 5–75 | 5–55 | 5–90 | 5–115 | 5–75 |
| Median for all | 90 | 50 | .. | 30 | 50 | 25 | 50 | 15 | .. | 20 | 30 | .. |
| **Grade IV. Total number of schools having 4th grade, 145** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| No. *not* taking | 1 | 3 | 141 | 8 | 4 | 3 | 13 | 18 | 104 | 20 | 21 | 114 |
| Variation | 25–150 | 30–150 | 40–60 | 20–150 | 25–165 | 10–80 | 5–150 | 5–100 | 5–50 | 5–100 | 5–100 | 10–75 |
| Median for all | 75 | 65 | .. | 50 | 50 | 30 | 50 | 20 | .. | 20 | 30 | .. |
| **Grade V. Total number of schools having 5th grade, 134** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| No. *not* taking | 9 | 2 | 53 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 13 | 9 | 86 | 17 | 13 | 102 |
| Variation | 10–150 | 25–150 | 10–150 | 25–180 | 20–170 | 10–100 | 1–10 | 5–100 | 5–50 | 5–100 | 10–110 | 10–75 |
| Median for all | 55 | 75 | 30 | 75 | 75 | 30 | 45 | 30 | .. | 25 | 30 | .. |
| **Grade VI. Total number of schools having 6th grade, 132** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| No. *not* taking | 30 | 3 | 16 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 10 | 12 | 66 | 18 | 17 | 99 |
| Variation | 10–150 | 30–150 | 10–110 | 30–200 | 15–170 | 10–100 | 5–125 | 5–100 | 5–50 | 5–100 | 5–110 | 10–60 |
| Median for all | 50 | 75 | 50 | 75 | 75 | 40 | 40–45 | 30 | .. | 25 | 30 | .. |
| **Grade VII. Total number of schools having 7th grade, 133** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| No. *not* taking | 72 | 5 | 3 | 27 | 1 | 3 | 11 | 10 | 54 | 14 | 21 | 102 |
| Variation | 10–100 | 40–150 | 20–150 | 30–180 | 15–180 | 15–100 | 5–125 | 5–100 | 5–75 | 5–100 | 5–100 | 5–75 |
| Median for all | .. | 75 | 75 | 75 | 75 | 40–45 | 45 | 25 | 15 | 25 | 30 | .. |
| **Grade VIII. Total number of schools having 8th grade, 000** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| No. *not* taking | 70 | 23 | 11 | 71 | 4 | 12 | 19 | 23 | 42 | 21 | 19 | 84 |
| Variation | 15–100 | 45–100 | 40–150 | 40–125 | 40–180 | 10–100 | 5–125 | 5–60 | 5–75 | 10–75 | 5–100 | 10–100 |
| Median for all | .. | 75 | 75 | .. | 75 | 50 | 45 | 25 | 20 | 75 | 30 | .. |

New York State teachers need leadership, guidance and help here The state has been negligent in this respect. The present confusion of practice is to a large degree the result of neglected opportunities for educational service.

Problem of Grouping Grades.—While all teachers need guidance in the organization of their work, the rural teacher makes a special demand upon the state's educational leaders as a result of the fact that he must teach so many grades. It is not possible for him to handle each grade separately in each subject and have a modern school. As matters now stand, he must either reduce the time for each grade to the minimum or limit his teaching to the simple fundamental subjects. Usually it results in his doing both.

Because of this situation it is quite generally agreed that to attempt to carry over into the one-room rural school the graded organization of the city is unwise. We must seek for the rural school an organization which will reduce the number of grades or groups and number of classes, and consequently increase the size of class and the length of time each class can spend with the teacher.

To bring about a more effective use of time and larger educational returns in the ungraded rural school certain practices are possible. Alternating classes, combining two grades in certain subjects and combining two subjects in one recitation have been quite commonly practiced. There are certain subjects that need not recite every day. Certain grades may well meet together and more effective work result. The work of two subjects may each be accomplished in a single recitation period. On the other hand some may not be so treated. In which subjects, grades or topics may this be most effectively done? This reorganization is too difficult a task to devolve upon the overworked, untrained rural teacher. It is too important a question to leave to chance.

A second type of reorganization, not necessarily eliminating all the above features, is becoming more common and is more highly approved, that is, the organization of the rural school into groups rather than grades. This involves, if properly and fully carried out, a special course of study where work is outlined for this type of school.

An organization of the latter sort is the only effective and permanent solution. If the attempt to reduce the number of classes is

left to the chance combination a teacher may work out either by combining classes or grades, there will be of necessity many cases where children will have work either too hard or too easy. There will be other cases where a child must repeat work already mastered or fail to get some he really needs. Unless there is some carefully worked out system in which most careful attention is given to the details of this very difficult question, school work will be a mere hodge-podge.

Such combinations of grades should not only be most carefully made but also according to a program common to a given district. Unless such basic plan is followed, a child who spends his fifth school year in one school might, upon changing to another district for his sixth year, be quite out of harmony with the prevailing organization in the second school.

To promote this work of reorganizing the schools, or the more simple practice of combining and alternating classes, the state offers no help. The course of study is outlined primarily for teachers with single grades. It in no way suits the ungraded school or serves to guide its teacher. Practically all subjects are outlined as if a teacher were to have a class in each grade in each subject. If a rural teacher with eight grades was to teach the course of study as outlined she would have between 50 and 60 classes each day.

An illustration of the unfitness of the course of study as organized for the rural teacher may be given from the recent civics syllabus. What can the rural teacher do with the following suggestion?

"VII. Suggestive time allotment. (p. 10)
1st four grades: 5 periods a week, 20 minutes each,
5th and 6th grades: 3 periods a week, 30 minutes each,
7th and 8th grades: 2 periods a week, 40 minutes each."

The civics work is organized separately for each grade. If the rural teacher with eight grades attempted to follow this program she would have to devote 740 minutes a week, or nearly 45 percent of the entire school time, to teaching civics. Evidently those who made this syllabus did not have the rural school in mind.

In spite of the fact that the rural teacher has received slight consideration at the hands of the state department in making the cur-

riculum he is the one who is most dependent upon it. City schools under expert leadership construct their own courses of study. The rural teacher, to quote the words of one of them, "gets practically no other help from outside authority or higher up." If the state department wished to render the greatest good to the greatest number, it should make a curriculum specifically serviceable to rural children and rural teachers.

As a result of the teachers' unguided efforts in using a misfit course of study, we find the following situation with reference to number of classes per day:

TABLE 76.—NUMBER OF CLASSES PER DAY

| Number of recitations | Number of grades in school | | | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 8 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | |
| 14 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| 15 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| 16 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| 17 | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 5 |
| 18 | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | 2 | .. | 4 |
| 19 | .. | .. | .. | 3 | 3 | .. | 6 |
| 20 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 4 | 2 | 7 |
| 21 | .. | 2 | 1 | 1 | 4 | .. | 8 |
| 22 | .. | 2 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 12 |
| 23 | .. | 2 | 2 | 5 | .. | .. | 9 |
| 24 | 1 | 2 | 7 | 3 | .. | .. | 13 |
| 25 | .. | 5 | 7 | 3 | .. | .. | 15 |
| 26 | 1 | 5 | 4 | 1 | .. | .. | 11 |
| 27 | .. | 2 | 8 | 5 | 1 | .. | 16 |
| 28 | 4 | .. | 2 | .. | .. | .. | 6 |
| 29 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 1 | .. | .. | 10 |
| 30 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 1 | .. | .. | 10 |
| 31 | .. | 3 | 7 | 1 | .. | .. | 11 |
| 32 | .. | 2 | 2 | 1 | .. | .. | 5 |
| 33 | 1 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 3 |
| 34 | .. | .. | 2 | .. | .. | .. | 2 |
| 35 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| 36 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 |
| 37 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 |
| 38 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 |
| | 13 | 36 | 52 | 31 | 22 | 9 | 163 |
| Medians..... | 29 | 26 | 27 | 24 | 20 | 17 | .. |

A partial explanation of the small average number of classes is due to the large number of rural schools having fewer than the eight grades. Another explanation is to be found in the limited scope of the curriculum offered to the rural child. (See tables on time given to several subjects.) There is, however, some combination of grades and of subjects. Field observers reported upon 1,343 recitations. Less than one recitation in ten involved a combination of grades. The combination of subjects within a single recitation was too small to be significant. The record of the grade combinations follows:

TABLE 77.—COMBINATION OF GRADES

| Grades combined | Geography | Nature Study | History | Civics | Hygiene | Reading | English | Arithmetic | Spelling | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1–2 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 13 |
| 1–2–3 | 2 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 3 | 1 | 2 | .. | 9 |
| 2–3 | 4 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5 | 3 | 4 | .. | 16 |
| 2–3–4 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 1 |
| 3–4 | 3 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 12 |
| 3–4–5 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .. | 1 | .. | 3 |
| 3–4–5–6 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 |
| 4–5 | 3 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 4 | .. | .. | 1 | 9 |
| 4–5–6 | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 |
| 5–6 | 5 | .. | 2 | .. | 1 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 3 | 18 |
| 5–6–7 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | 2 | 5 |
| 5–6–7–8 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 3 |
| 6–7 | 3 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| 6–7–8 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | 3 | 5 |
| 7–8 | 2 | .. | 5 | .. | .. | 1 | 7 | 9 | 4 | 28 |
| All..... | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| | 23 | 3 | 9 | 1 | 3 | 26 | 22 | 25 | 20 | 132 |

The amount is not only small but indicates no guiding principle. Having no advice to follow, teachers meet the situation as best they can. Here also is a field for guidance not at present utilized by the state.[1]

A study of the number of pupils in classes shows the great need of some changed organization to promote social atmosphere and group activity on the part of the children and utilize the teacher's leadership more effectively through a larger class. Not all of this can be accomplished by a reorganization of curricula material but in the face of the above facts some improvement is possible. The results are as follows for the one-teacher schools:

[1] See Journal of Rural Education, October, 1921, p. 52.

TABLE 78.—SIZE OF CLASSES[1]

| | Number pupils in class | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | |
| Reading | 80 | 90 | 73 | 51 | 32 | 23 | 11 | 6 | 6 | 3 | 3 | .. | .. | 2 | 386 |
| English | 25 | 32 | 29 | 31 | 21 | 17 | 9 | 7 | 4 | 6 | .. | 1 | .. | 4 | 186 |
| Spelling | 17 | 29 | 22 | 36 | 20 | 7 | 7 | 12 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 2 | .. | 2 | 157 |
| Arithmetic | 54 | 74 | 61 | 58 | 33 | 17 | 17 | 11 | 4 | 6 | 3 | 1 | .. | 2 | 341 |
| Geography | 21 | 27 | 32 | 25 | 24 | 9 | 8 | 9 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | .. | .. | 185 |
| History | 17 | 16 | 18 | 25 | 10 | 8 | 7 | .. | 3 | 1 | 2 | .. | .. | 1 | 108 |
| Total | 214 | 268 | 235 | 226 | 140 | 81 | 59 | 45 | 23 | 22 | 13 | 6 | .. | 11 | 1,343 |

In the one-teacher rural schools of New York State the mode is to have two pupils per class. The median is three. Fifty-four per cent of all classes have three pupils or less. Seventy percent have four pupils or less per class.

As a necessary consequence of the greater number of classes, the length of time each class spends under the teacher's guidance is small. The result of the observations of 1,277 recitations gave the following record as to length of recitations:

TABLE 79.—LENGTH OF RECITATIONS

| | Minutes given to recitation | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | |
| Reading | 4 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 50 | 2 | 15 | 11 | 4 | 137 | .. | 20 | 3 | 3 | 78 | 1 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | 19 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 364 |
| English | .. | .. | 3 | 4 | 9 | 1 | 2 | 3 | .. | 65 | .. | 4 | .. | 2 | 52 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 20 | 1 | .. | .. | 8 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 175 |
| Spelling | 2 | 11 | 22 | 5 | 45 | 2 | 12 | 2 | .. | 41 | 1 | 3 | .. | .. | 4 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 152 |
| Geography | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 6 | .. | 2 | 5 | 1 | 54 | .. | 6 | 2 | .. | 49 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 15 | .. | .. | .. | 6 | 1 | 3 | .. | .. | 154 |
| History | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 3 | 2 | .. | 1 | .. | 22 | .. | 4 | 2 | .. | 41 | .. | 1 | 2 | .. | .. | 14 | .. | .. | .. | 8 | .. | 2 | .. | .. | 103 |
| Arithmetic | .. | .. | 2 | .. | 38 | 4 | 4 | 10 | 3 | 106 | .. | 9 | 3 | 14 | 70 | .. | 2 | 1 | .. | .. | 33 | .. | .. | .. | 25 | .. | .. | .. | 5 | 329 |
| Total | 7 | 18 | 34 | 14 | 151 | 11 | 35 | 32 | 8 | 425 | 1 | 46 | 10 | 19 | 294 | 2 | 6 | 3 | .. | .. | 101 | 1 | .. | .. | 48 | 1 | 5 | .. | 5 | 1,277 |

Of the 1,277 recitations, 7 lasted 1 minute, 18 lasted 2 minutes, etc.

[1]This table should be read as follows: 214 classes out of 1,343 had only one pupil in the class.

These facts indicate how superficial much of the teacher's work must be. Fifty-seven percent of the classes recite for ten minutes or less. The organization of the rural elementary curriculum must be such as to correct, in so far as possible, the conditions represented by the lower fifty percent in the table.

The rural teacher, most heavily burdened, least well trained and most poorly supervised, is presented with a curriculum made in terms of a city school organization and is given no help in adjusting it effectively to his own situation. A curriculum should be constructed in terms of the rural school situation, worked out in terms of a feasible grouping of pupils, showing a practicable alternating of subjects, pointing out and illustrating profusely the possibilities of correlation in the various school subjects, and whenever possible, as in nature study, civics, local history, local geography, and hygiene for the earlier grades and for many phases of geography and history for the upper grades, work out courses of study wherein present subjects are combined in a single course.

# CHAPTER XI

## CURRICULUM IN USE

IT IS not sufficient to present the strong and weak points of the printed syllabus. Since it is a means of assisting supervisors and teachers in providing a standard education for children we must study the use they make of it and its contribution to them. Finally since we are primarily interested in the child, we must determine in so far as possible, the real curriculum, the actual work that is given to him.

In order to evaluate the curriculum in this broader meaning of the term, questionnaires were sent to rural teachers and district superintendents. In addition, a force of eight trained observers, chosen because of their special interest in and understanding of rural school problems, spent on an average two weeks each visiting rural school teachers at work. The following report is based upon the data secured through these means.

### Distribution of the Syllabi

As one means of measuring the service of the printed syllabus a study was made of its distribution. Obviously a teacher cannot profit by the curriculum if she does not have it. The distribution of the separate syllabi among all teachers reporting is as follows:

Table 80.—Distribution of Syllabi

| | |
|---|---|
| Number of blanks returned | 927 |
| Number giving no answer | 21 |
| Number reporting no syllabi at all | 11 |

| Subject | Number of teachers having a copy | Per-cent |
|---|---|---|
| English | 865 | 95 |
| Civics | 449 | 50 |
| Arithmetic | 199 | 22 |
| Geography | 563 | 62 |
| History | 265 | 29 |
| Physical Training | 191 | 21 |
| Nature Study | 243 | 26 |
| Music | 102 | 11 |

The distribution of the 1910 syllabus, a single edition including all subjects, is as follows:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Number of blanks returned | 927 | |
| Number giving no answer | 27 | |
| Number having a copy | 665 | 74 percent |

It was thought worth while to find out how many of the separate syllabi, of which there are eight issued, were possessed by those teachers who lacked a copy of the 1910 edition. The report is given below. It should be read as follows: Of the 235 teachers not having the 1910 syllabus, 3 have no separate syllabi, 17 have one, 30 have two, etc.

| Number of syllabi | Number of teachers |
|---|---|
| 0 | 3 |
| 1 | 17 |
| 2 | 30 |
| 3 | 45 |
| 4 | 54 |
| 5 | 40 |
| 6 | 24 |
| 7 | 10 |
| 8 | 4 |
| No answer | 8 |

Table 80 shows that the English syllabus is about as well distributed as one could hope for under present conditions. Compared with the other syllabi it represents a real achievement and indicates effort on the part of those responsible for the work in English. It may also indicate that teachers have really found it worth while. This large distribution is especially promising since the English Syllabus represents the best section of the entire course of study.

While the syllabus in civics and patriotism is not of great help to rural teachers, it is better than nothing and should have been as well distributed as the syllabus for English. Whatever service it may render is made available to only fifty percent of the teaching force in rural schools.

Little need be said about the syllabi in arithmetic, history and geography when the fairly common possession of the 1910 syllabus is taken into account, for the former are actual or practical reproductions of the latter. Few teachers evidently are without them in one form or another.

The physical training syllabus is reported by Mr. Chase of the state department not to have been ready for distribution until near the close of school. The major distribution has been made since these data were compiled.

Rural school leaflets, no doubt, largely supplant the nature study syllabus while the absence of the music syllabus indicates either that it is useless to rural teachers or that because of lack of time and ability the subject is quite neglected in rural schools. It is likely that all three are partial explanations.

The large percent of teachers possessing a copy of the 1910 edition indicates that it is still in common use. It is in actual fact the basic guide for rural school teachers. One is justified in concluding that, with the exception of English and civics, the curriculum in use in rural schools reflects in no way the educational progress of the last decade.

To be without this 1910 edition is significant. Help in reading, physiology, and drawing is given nowhere else. Thus 26 percent of all teachers are without guidance in these subjects so far as the curriculum is concerned.

The third section of Table 80 indicates that the teachers lacking this basic edition are not well supplied with such separate syllabi as are available. Their work must consequently suffer.

No attempt was made to determine whether this lack of distribution was due to the indifference of the teacher, the neglect of the district superintendent, or the failure of the state to fulfil its function. That some district superintendents and teachers have difficulty in securing the syllabi was indicated in their reports.[1] Verbal statements from teachers and superintendents at conferences would lead one to the conclusion that the state has been indifferent or negligent in making this material readily available to the teacher. The status of the English syllabus is proof that either a good syllabus or aggressive leadership on the part of those responsible for the subject, or both, does secure results. It might serve as a source of suggestion to those who deal with the other subjects in the curriculum.

[1] There was no direct question on this point. Eight superintendents and several teachers chanced to mention it.

## What Uses do Teachers Make of the Syllabi?

The state has issued its curriculum for the guidance of superintendents and teachers. What use do they make of the syllabi which they have? Data on this point were secured from both teachers and supervisors. The teachers' reports will be summarized first.

The teachers were asked to state several uses that they had made of the curriculum. In the following summary we used the replies from 927 teachers in one teacher schools. Of this number 238 did not answer the question.

The replies indicate that the New York state system serves to keep teachers conscious of a certain goal to be attained by each grade. By determining this goal the teacher has doubtless been stimulated to greater effort of a certain kind. But the goal has been fixed almost entirely in terms of work to be done and facts to be learned, rather than in terms of educational objectives. By specifying the content, the teachers' work has been localized, but by so doing it is probable that the state has greatly curtailed the teacher's initiative and thus prevented the most effective teaching.

As a result of this policy the teacher is likely not to be conscious of the educational values that he should attain but rather to exaggerate the importance of specific facts which he tries to fix in the minds of his pupils. The state can and should set up the desirable educational objectives. It cannot wisely prescribe in great detail the means thereto. In the following replies one can see how completely the teacher accepts the course of study as the source of authority and something to be administered to children.

1. Syllabus used to determine amount and nature of work to be done. 35 percent.

To determine work for each grade, 170. Selection of content, 43. Required work in English, 55; in history, 22; in drawing, 22; in arithmetic, 16; in geography, 76; in reading, 8; in civics, 5; in physiology, 2; in physical training, 1. As a guide in nature study, 15. To check up work covered, 16. Total 399, or 35 percent.

2. Assistance in teaching—*formal.* 27 percent.

A second type of use reflects the nature of most of the syllabi. It represents a common tendency, namely, to attempt to transfer to

the child the formal, logically organized often meaningless material outlined in the syllabi. The teacher looks upon these syllabi as a source of already organized materials which they are to "teach," and which children are to memorize and "put in their note books." The following stated uses represent this attitude:

Outlines for work, 93; as a guide, 37; for review, 7; making out examinations, 20; preparing for the "Regents," 21; outlines to put in notebooks, 14; topics for composition, 16; guide to proper texts, 6; as a text, 4; to indicate topics needing special drill, 7. Total 299, or 27 percent.

3. Assistance in teaching—*constructive.*

In some instances, however, and they are far too few, teachers take a more independent attitude. Teachers are attempting a task and look to the curriculum more as a source of help in time of need. Among the answers included here were 80 that testified to help received in preparing lessons, and 29 that acknowledged help in assigning lessons. In reality these 109 replies belong to the preceding group. For, judging from the data given in the study of actual classroom activity (see p. 194) preparing lessons merely involves finding out what the course of study indicates that these pupils should learn at this time. Moreover, there is no help given in the syllabi on the manner of assigning lessons; consequently a teacher cannot learn much on this point from them.

The remaining uses included under this type are only 171 in number and are distributed as follows: Use of syllabus as a guide to reference work and supplementary reading, 80; in locating teaching material, 19; for suggestions, 22; as models, 12; for helps in method, 25; to correlate work, 7; for new ideas, 6. These hold some promise and indicate that teachers would make use of a course of study offering needed assistance. The meagerness of this section, compared with what it should be, is perhaps a fair measure of the limited constructive service of the curriculum to the teachers. This entire group includes only 25 percent of the total replies or only 15 percent if we eliminate those mentioning preparation and assignment.

4. Organization. 12 percent.

Planning work, 117; distribution of time, 9; guide to order of presentation, 7; guide to classification of pupils, 12. Total, 145 or 12 percent.

5. All other replies—5.

In the above group, the term "planning work" means little more than arranging it so that the work prescribed for the year by the course of study will be covered by examination time. It is similar to the use represented by the first group. The small number who find much real help in the actual effective organization of their complicated task is in keeping with the silence of the curriculum upon these many difficult questions which every teacher must face.

From the above facts it seems evident that the meager and formal nature of the course of study, the absence of specific help, of any clear statement of educational purposes, or detailed objectives, is reflected in the teacher's use of it. If one may judge from these facts a fundamental revision is necessary if the maximum of service is to be rendered to rural teachers.

### Maximum Help Received

The teachers were asked to state the way in which the curriculum helped them most. They did not, however, limit themselves to a single answer in every case. The responses given are similar to those in the previous report and probably contribute nothing additional. No further comment is needed.

1. Number of teachers' reports ..... 927
2. Number giving no answer to this question ..... 221
3. Number answering ..... 706

Distribution of Replies:

1. Use *primarily* to determine amount and nature of work.
   Defining work by grades, 85; specific work to do, 69; required work in English, 59; important topics, 66; selection of content, 13; check work done, 7. Total, 300.
2. Teaching help (formal):
   Use of outlines, 90; definite plan to work from, 82; guides to drill for exams., 38; basis of review, 19; as a guide, 19; topics for composition, 14; as a text, 8. Total, 270.

3. Teaching help (constructive):
   References, 64; methods, 34; examples and illustrations, 20; defines aims of work, 6; suggestions for seat work, 2; planning daily lessons, 35; assignments, 9; furnishing aids in primary work, 2; suggested readings for teacher, 5; suggestions for developing subjects, 5; suggests nature study materials, 3; aids in oral composition, 12; correlation, 4; new ideas, 4; locating teaching materials, 6; suggestions, 36. Total, 247.
4. In organization:
   Planning work, 22; order of work, 20; aids in grading, 7; distribution of time, 10. Total, 59.
5. All others, 9.

By the replies to these two major questions, the teachers have indicated to a very large degree the type of service a curriculum should render. If such reports as these were taken as suggestions and the curriculum so constructed as to provide the teacher wise guidance and sufficient assistance in meeting these felt needs, abundant service would be assured.

To realize how utterly insufficient the present curriculum is, all one need do is to seek help and guidance upon the above stated points from the syllabi. What help is given upon "distribution of time," "lesson planning," "assignments," "suggestions for seat work," "aids in primary work," or grade standards? It is hopeful, at least, that teachers seek such help from the curriculum in spite of the unpromising returns from that source.

### As Reported by District Superintendents

In order to see the problem from another point of view this question was asked of the district superintendents: "What uses of the curriculum do the teachers in your district most commonly make?" Their answers were in most cases too general to be very helpful. They throw no additional light upon the question but they do show that the superintendents are less generally aware of the functions of the curriculum than are the teachers themselves. They are, however, quite consistent with the replies of the teachers themselves. Of the 180 blanks returned, 8 contained no answer. The other reports were distributed as follows:

1. General assistance:
   (a) As a guide, 51; as a "complete" guide, 5; as a basis, 20; follow closely, 67; as an outline, 14; follow too closely, 18; use it exclusively, 2; neglect it entirely, 3.
   Total, 177; 55 percent.
   (b) As suggestive and directive, 17; follow carefully and intelligently, 3; follow closely as conditions will allow, 18.
   Total, 38; 12 percent.
2. Teaching help (constructive):
   References, 6; suggestions on method, 7; daily helps, 2; general suggestions, 2; to acquire a co-ordinate view of subject, 2.
   Total, 19; 6 percent.
3. Teaching help (formal):
   Helps pupils pass examinations, 9; as a text, 2; basis of review, 3; means of measuring progress, 8.
   Total, 22; 6 percent.
4. Organization:
   Planning work, 7; making program, 3; basis for classifying pupils, 8.
   Total, 18; 5 percent.

To summarize from the teachers' and superintendents' reports, it does not appear that the printed curriculum is rendering a very valuable service. Its formality, barrenness, and exclusively factual nature are reflected in the teachers' use of it. It tells them what to do and when to do it. It provides ready-made outlines. It indicates the points that must be stressed if the examination is to be passed. Textbooks are chosen that accord with the curriculum. Teachers use it as a guide. But since the objectives, other than the things to be learned, are unknown, they must follow it closely, too closely without a doubt, and often blindly and unquestioningly. To the large majority it is not a tool. It is a master. Some of the more independent use it with some freedom and find in it a few "suggestions" and "new ideas." It is, however, rendering but the smallest part of its possible service to them.

### The Curriculum in Relation to Supervision

The district superintendents were asked what effect the state curriculum had upon their work of supervision. Of the 180, eight

gave no answer to this question, while ten replies were too general to be of use.

Judging by the responses the effect is far from desirable. If one may be allowed to express in words what the replies seem to indicate, the majority accept the curriculum as it is without apparent question, without idea of change or improvement. Their task is that of inspection rather than assistance and the curriculum is a convenient equalizer and measuring stick. The teacher is expected to administer this to his pupils in its pre-arranged order. The pupils are expected to master it in certain weekly and monthly sections. The supervisor's task is largely that of checking up such progress from time to time to see if all are traveling at an equal rate along this approved way. Adjustment, variation, differences are sources of trouble and discomfort to the system. They obstruct easy checking. The child as a factor is almost unmentioned. The machine is supreme.

The advantage of this pre-arranged machine-like procedure is pointed out in several ways:

1. It provides a systematic program.
   It promotes efficient use of a teacher's time, 6.
   It prevents a teacher from following her personal whims, 8.
   Teachers do not vary. This conserves the supervisor's energy, 15.
   Teachers are requested to follow it. Supervisors enforce it, 14.
   It relieves the superintendent from planning the course of study, 3.
   Teachers require less of the supervisor's time, 2. Total, 48 or 18 percent of all replies.

The first answer has some promise. For many others, evidently, the value of the systematic procedure lies in the fact that it conserves the supervisor's time rather than because of its significance for the teacher's effectiveness and the child's education.

2. It fixes the requirements and facilitates checking.
   It facilitates checking of the teachers' work, 37.
   It facilitates checking of grade progress, 47.
   It makes it easier for supervisors, 28.
   It makes supervision definite, 16.
   It furnishes a standard of comparing school with school, 23. Total, 151; 60 percent.

From the unusually large number in this group it seems evident that the course of study is utilized largely to determine the scope of the work and the rate of progress.

3. It promotes more effective supervision.
   Work is easily checked, weaknesses discovered and help given, 11.
   Check work easily and allow time for constructive suggestions, 4.
   Basis for evaluating method, 4.
   Guides in the selection of content, 7.
   Promotes interest at conferences, 2.
   Provides common ground where teacher and superintendent can meet. Total, 29 or 11 percent.

Some supervisors are not content with merely checking results. They do this as a means to constructive suggestions. There still exists, however, a blind acceptance of the course. It is the unquestioned road for all to follow.

4. Aids in organization.
   Simplified classification, 3.
   Enables pupils to transfer without loss, 4.
   Checks unequal distribution of time, 1.
   Total 8, or 3 percent.

5. Curriculum hinders effective supervision.

Not all are so quiescent and content with the formal machine-like procedure. A few evidently appreciate their opportunity for leadership, sense the varying needs of children, and the desirable differences in different communities. Such, however, find the curriculum a hindrance to this higher type of service. They thus express themselves:

   Supervision too routinized, 3.
   Supervision follows the ruts of the course of study, 2.
   It checks initiative, 4.
   Course founded from the college down, instead of from the schools up, 1.
   No help, 4. Total, 14 or 6 percent.

One seems justified in concluding that a curriculum that does not furnish its supervisory force any greater appreciation of the educational problems of today, keener insight into their function as su-

pervisors, and stimulate them to more constructive leadership in providing a suitable educational diet for the pupils whom they serve, is ready for the discard.

### The Teacher's Contribution to the Curriculum

Education is to make specific changes in individual children. The nature of such changes will vary with the region, the community and the individual. The teacher who is responsible for this should diagnose his community to determine its conditions, educational resources and needs. He should then utilize the resources of this community, the many contributions of our common social heritage, and apply them in keeping with local conditions to serve the educational needs of his children. In this task the curriculum should be to him a rich source of material and suggestion. It should set up for him the major objectives in education in each specific field. It should suggest means of providing for the child the necessary experiences through which these ends may be attained. It should be looked upon as a tool, something to use, to add to, omit from, to adjust in many ways as the local situation demanded.

Such a plan can be most easily illustrated in the field of health education. In the School Review for September, 1920, Bobbitt has made an analysis of some of the specific objectives of health education in secondary schools. This is typical of the work that must be done for every part of a subject or for all subjects.

Health education in the elementary school is concerned with certain major problems among which are questions of recreation, food, clothing, posture, fresh air, sleep, and personal cleanliness, prevention and care of accident and disease. Involved in each of these are many more detailed questions with which the teacher must deal if health education is to be realized.

Personal cleanliness may be taken as an example. A child must be taught to brush his teeth, to wash his hands before meals, after using the toilet, and whenever dirt thereon may contaminate one's food or otherwise endanger health. He must be taught not to pick his nose, to blow his nose in a handkerchief, not to spit where the germs may spread, to keep his clothes as clean as possible, to have reasonable standards for changing soiled clothing, to clean his shoes

when entering a building occupied by people, to cleanse the system by drinking abundant water and by evacuating the bowels at least daily, to keep the head free from vermin. A careful study and analysis of the problem of personal cleanliness would reveal many more specific elements that must be given attention. Such a listing of objectives would give the teacher some conception of the work to be accomplished and would insure a more direct attack.

The teacher should also have pointed out the available means for realizing such objectives. School life and activities offer many opportunities for developing desirable habits and attitude in relation to personal cleanliness and for providing such knowledge as is necessary to make these habits and attitudes reasonable. Many rural schools need to provide facilities for washing face and hands. A discussion of the need for these facilities, efforts to provide them, and training in their use is an excellent teaching situation. Cleaning the feet before coming into the school room, using the handkerchief properly, providing and caring for individual drinking cups, the school lunch, the playground activities, behavior in the use of the toilets, the health club as a means of securing the exercise of habits of personal cleanliness at home, are some of the available means for fixing desirable health practices.

While the ultimate results in health practices are practically the same for all people, the task of the school in health education will vary with individuals and with communities. Some families and communities will be entirely free from vermin-infested heads. Others will need attention. Some children are taught at home practically all the desirable personal health habits. Others will be taught few or none. The teacher must have in mind the ultimate standards and must teach each school and each child in terms of the specific lacks or needs.

The very nature of health education demands that much of it be taught as the occasion arises. Health education is not primarily a body of knowledge to be mastered but habits and attitudes to be formed. It must be woven into the life and activities of the pupils. This can be best accomplished when such education is very closely related to the activities and problems of the school, family and community life. Consequently the fixed order of textbook or syllabus

cannot be most profitably followed. The teacher, consequently, must be given considerable responsibility in deciding what should be taught in any particular school and as to when, in what order and how these things should be taught. This may, in the light of our present rural teaching force, seem too indefinite and intangible. In regard to exactly what is being taught at any given time and just how it is being done, there would be no fixed uniformity or certainty. But that is not important. If the major aims of health education were carefully listed, if each of these were further analyzed into the specific health habits, and attitudes and the necessary knowledge associated with them, if these were localized for the teacher in the daily lives and activities of the children so he could not fail to see the specific problems, and if, further, the many teaching situations were pointed out to him and suggestions for utilizing such situations for health education were given, the writer believes school work would be far more intelligent, effective and definite in the relation of effort to educational aim than is now the case.

Do the teachers of New York State make such use of their curriculum? Do they look upon it as a tool of which they are master? The answer to the previous questions throws some light upon this. As a means of determining further what use teachers made of it in this respect, questions as to omission or addition of topics, or changes to suit local conditions were inserted in the questionnaire. Answers to these questions are difficult to summarize and are not conclusive. They are, however, indicative of certain tendencies and needs.

### Omission of Topics

In response to the question on omission of topics 152 teachers replied through our field force and 927 teachers replied through a questionnaire. The replies from the two sources are combined and are distributed as follows:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Number of replies | 1,079 | |
| No answer to the question | 172 | |
| Number of teachers reporting no omissions | 709 | 79 percent |
| Number of teachers reporting omissions | 199 | 21 percent |

These replies do not prove that the teacher does not omit anything outlined in the syllabi for the subjects taught. Doubtless

every teacher makes such omissions. The replies do serve to tell us the teacher's attitude toward these syllabi. It tells us whether he consciously and purposely makes such omissions.

The teachers were asked to give reasons for their omissions or lack of omissions. These reasons were few compared with the number of responses, but serve to indicate the forces influencing the situation.

A. Reasons for omissions:
   1. Good—total, 57 or 26 percent.
      Suit work to rural schools, 14; not practical, 18; work not suited to children (various reasons), 15; omit unimportant topics, 4; make work more interesting, 3; suit work to local community, 3.
   2. Poor—total, 17 or 8 percent.
      Omit parts not essential to examinations, 17.
   3. Indifferent—total, 133 or 62 percent.
      Lack of time, 101; lack of books and equipment, 28; lack of ability, 4.
   4. All others—total, 8 or 3 percent.

B. Reasons for no omissions, total 61.
   1. All is needed to prepare for examinations, 13; all should be taught, 11; thought I had to teach all, 4; I try to teach all, 31; see no reason for omissions, 2.

The 61 replies listed in the last section above comprise the total reasons given in the replies from 709 teachers who say they teach the curriculum as it is outlined. Doubtless the reasons given by these 61 are representative of the unspoken reasons of the other 648. Upon the basis of such an inference, namely, that 79 percent of all teachers are motivated by the above reasons for omitting nothing in the printed syllabi, it seems evident that three-fourths of all teachers are either dimly conscious of the child's needs or completely controlled by the demands of the examination and the formal content of the syllabi.

Group 3 under section A includes arguments which are for many an easy alibi. In part, it indicates the need of a reorganization of the curriculum so as to give the teacher opportunity for the exercise of initiative which some teachers evidently crave. In part it indicates the need of means whereby a real education may be carried on

Group 2 indicates a tendency, supported by later evidence (see pp. 182–185) and a spirit not at all uncommonly found in school visitations and in conference with teachers, namely, that the requirements of the examinations take precedence over the curriculum, textbook, or the child and social needs.

Group 1 are those who have shown some mastery over the curriculum. They are evaluating and selecting in terms of school, child and community conditions and needs. This promising group comprises, however, only 26 percent of those who report any omission, and only 6 percent of all the teachers answering.

In reaction to a report upon the above data the writer has been told upon several occasions that the replies do not indicate the facts. It was claimed that more teachers are using the curriculum as the situation and children's needs demand but that they feared to make such statements of omission. If this be true, it would be an even more serious indictment of the present situation.

A few quoted replies will make the teachers' attitudes more real. These are selected to represent good as well as bad tendencies.

"There are no parts of the work which I omit, but parts of it I do not emphasize as I do others since they are not so practical or valuable."

"Just leave out what doesn't seem important. When pushed for an answer she says experience has taught her what is important. She knows what they need for examinations."

"History is omitted because no examination is given in the 6th grade in history. Geography is given a large part of the school day because the Regents examination is given in the 6th grade geography."

"Stocks and bonds, denominate numbers, metric system and some reading are omitted. Drill for examinations takes so much time."

"Yes, conditions vary in different localities so course of study and method are changed to suit conditions although the general phases of the work remain the same."

### Additions to the Curriculum

We next asked the teachers whether they added anything to the course of study as it was outlined in the syllabi.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Total number of records returned | 1,079 | |
| Number containing no answer | 183 | |
| Number making no additions | 530 | 59.2 percent |
| Number making additions | 366 | 40.8 percent |

The replies are distributed as follows:

A. Reasons for additions. Total, 239.

1. To fit it to local conditions and children's needs. Total, 146, 61 percent.
   To follow and develop children's interests, 79; to fit the children's needs, 25; because of its practical value, 6; to fit local conditions, 31; children have time and ability to do more work, 5.
2. To enlarge educational opportunity. Total, 31 or 13 percent.
   To increase educational opportunity, 4; acquaint children with present events, 3; for various advantages to children, 21; older children have passed examinations and have little to do, 2; teachers should be broader than the syllabus, 1.
3. Other reasons. Total, 62 or 26 percent.
   Texts incomplete, 2; geography discontinued too soon, 12; syllabus incomplete, 22; develops reasoning, 24; course of study is only suggestive, 2; all others, 10.

B. Reasons for no additions. Total, 254.
   Lack of time, 144; the syllabus is complete, 55; too much work already, 42; do not feel capable, 3; never thought of doing it, 4; try to follow the course as outlined, 4; all other reasons, 2.

The larger number in the first group under "A" and the specific reasons given are an improvement over the answers to the previous question. Many teachers are conscious of the child's interests and needs and the functional value of school work. This group indicates that there is a vital spark in the rural teaching group which might furnish the basis for constructive work in creating a real curriculum suited to the needs of rural children and to the conditions of rural life. Their number, while larger than the same type found in response to the preceding question, is still far too small. Not a single teacher should have been silent or responded negatively to this question.

The following are typical answers:

"No, indeed, it is all I can do to follow what is given without adding anything else."

"Everything imaginable is already in."

"Must take these to pass examinations."

"Sometimes the text calls for more than the syllabus. Follow the syllabus."

"I work in all local happenings with our lessons. I teach the pupils to apply what they learn. I teach current topics by using daily papers and good magazines."

"In civics I bring in current events topics from newspapers. It encourages reading, makes pupils interested and expands their minds."

"I use the material the text book offers. It makes it more consecutive."

The teachers were asked to state any other ways in which they modified the curriculum. The answer to this was not satisfactory for many teachers repeated the omissions and additions given in the two preceding answers. Among these replies were many bearing upon the organization of the work. Grouping grades, combining subjects, correlating work, and distributing time differently were most frequently mentioned. Others mention changes in methods. Out of 78 reasons given, only 25 were in support of changes, and 53 against them. Of these 53 replies, nineteen contentedly "follow the syllabus," fourteen "see no reason for change," nine say "the syllabus is complete," and five "never thought of doing it."

### Organization of New Materials

As another means of securing information as to teachers' activity they were asked the following question: "In what subjects, if any, have you organized materials or developed outlines based upon local needs and conditions?" The record is as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| Number of records | 1,079 |
| Number giving no answer to question | 562 |
| Number answering "no" | 205 |
| Number having developed such outlines | 332 |

The topics for such outlines vary. Only the major ones are given: Hygiene, 41; English, 75; geography, 116; local geography, 44; arithmetic, 48; nature study, 97; agriculture, 41; local industries, 45; civics, 62; history, 44; manners, 31. No other was mentioned over five times.

Again there is promise here, but the total amount is small. Less than one-third of the thousand and seventy-nine teachers had done such work. This record does not measure the scope of such local initiative or the frequency with which the regular work was modified by such local studies. The evidence given in a latter part (see pp. 190–9) would indicate that it is anything but a frequent practice.

Anyone at all familiar with the rural school situation in New York State realizes that the examinations are no small influence. We find them influencing the teacher's conception of the function of the curriculum. Some make omissions and additions with this objective in mind or fail to make such change because preparation for examination so completely occupies their time.

Distribution of Regents Helps.—The Regents examinations have been conducted so long and have become so stereotyped that the questions for the past 20 years or more have been collected by publishing firms and issued in book form separately for each subject. Companion books containing the proper answers are also issued. Certain publishers also issue "Aids" in several subjects, giving a great deal of factual information "compiled for the use of schools with special reference to Regents examinations." These are quite commonly found in the possession of rural teachers in fair numbers. Teachers were asked to list such Regents helps in their possession. The following is a summary:

| | |
|---|---|
| Number of records | 152 |
| Number not replying | 11 |
| Number replying | 141 |
| Number stating replies only in general terms: | |
| Regents Review Books | 26[1] |
| Regents Answer Books | 15 |
| Grade Examination Books | 5 |

Among those who replied with specific titles, the books are distributed as follows in the fundamental subjects:

| | Regents Review | Percent | Regents Answers | Aids | Outlines |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Geography | 114 | 99 | 34 | 22 | 16 |
| History | 92 | 80 | 26 | 22 | 24 |
| Arithmetic | 94 | 80 | 30 | 1 | .. |
| English | 84 | 73 | 23 | 13 | 3 |
| Spelling | 50 | 43 | .. | .. | .. |
| Civics | 1 | .. | 1 | 1 | 2 |

[1] These figures are to be subtracted from the 141 replies in figuring the percentage for those replying with specific titles.

The popularity of this material may be shown by the following table giving number possessed by each teacher:

| Number of copies of Regents helps possessed by teachers | Number of teachers | Number of copies of Regents helps possessed by teachers | Number of teachers |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 7 | 9 |
| 1 | 10 | 8 | 11 |
| 2 | 17 | 9 | 9 |
| 3 | 13 | 10 | 3 |
| 4 | 22 | 11 | 4 |
| 5 | 20 | 12 | 1 |
| 6 | 10 | 13 | 2 |

If the above record of the distribution of the Regents helps is compared with the distribution of the state syllabi, it will be seen how important a place they have in determining the curriculum.

| | Distribution of syllabi | Of Regents helps |
|---|---|---|
| Subject | Percent of teachers having a copy | Percent of teachers having a copy |
| English | 93 | 73 |
| Geography | 60 | 99 |
| History | 28 | 80 |
| Arithmetic | 21 | 80 |
| 1910 edition | 74 | .. |

Influence of Examinations upon Content of Course.—In the report upon additions and omissions there was some evidence that teachers select content with reference to the requirements of the examination. To get further evidence upon this point teachers were asked through the questionnaire whether the syllabi or Regents questions were most influential in determining the work given. They replied as follows:

For grades 1–4

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Total number of replies | 1,079 | |
| Curriculum most influential | 1,001 | 96.9 |
| Grade and Regents examinations | 26 | 2.5 |
| Both | 6 | |
| No answer | 46 | |

For grades 5–8

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Curriculum most influential | 429 | 42.3 |
| Grade and Regents examinations | 386 | 38.1 |
| Both | 201 | 19.5 |
| No answer | 63 | |

It is evident from these facts and those given in the record of actual work (p. 198), that the Regents questions become to a very marked degree, the course of study. What shall be taught, emphasized and drilled upon is determined in a large measure in the upper grades by the questions that have appeared in Regents examinations. Preparation for these questions is almost entirely a memoriter type of work and consumes so much time that the overloaded country teachers are forced to prepare for these questions and neglect the many other more interesting, more vital and more educative experiences. When the examination period approaches, many teachers resort to the Regents examinations questions as the source of the lesson assignments and refer the children to the Regents Answer Books for sources of answers, a pure catechetical experience. In the present situation of untrained teachers and limited supervision a fairly specific curriculum might be defended. But when the lack of any organizing principle in any set of these questions and their large factual nature is taken into account, the small educative value of such procedure is easily seen.

It is not the purpose here to evaluate the examination system as such. This has been done elsewhere.[1] But we are justified in questioning its use when it becomes a substitute for the curriculum or a hindrance to providing children the type of education they need.

Assistance Rendered by the Examinations.—The teachers were asked to state in what respect the grade and preliminary examinations helped them. In making their replies some thought of them as standards to be achieved, some in terms of the results shown by such tests and others of the assistance gained from the use of old questions. The record is as follows:

In what manner do the examinations help you?

| | |
|---|---|
| Total number of reports | 1,079 |
| No answers | 286 |
| No help at all | 22 |
| Positive answers | 771[2] |

[1] Survey of New York State Rural Schools. Vol. II, Section on "The State System of Examinations."

[2] Some papers listed more than one type of assistance.

1. As a stimulus to work. Total 159, 20 percent.
   Incentive to pupils, 108; stimulates interest, 27; keeps class up to standard, 24.
2. As an aim. Total 76, 10 percent.
   Provides definite aim or goal, 52; indicates standard, 24.
3. As a help in preparation for examinations: Total 129, 17 percent.
   Gives an idea of the type of questions to expect, 87; best preparation for Regents, 30; helps children overcome dread of examinations, 5; better than texts—continued repetition prepares for examinations, 9; teaches children how to interpret questions, 8.
4. In classification and promotion. Total 134, 17 percent.
   Basis of classification and promotion, 60; aids in judging children's ability, 44; show what is expected in each grade, 22; keeps work uniform, 8.
5. In determining content and emphasis. Total 82, 10 percent.
   To select important topics, 20; shows what is required, 21; shows what subjects and parts need stressing, 33; provides material for class work, 8.
6. Assistance in teaching. Total 198, 25 percent.
   As a check on work covered, 96; used as tests, 17; suggestions, 4; suggests ways of asking questions, 21; helps in planning work, 3; in summarizing the terms work, 8; as a test of teaching, 11; shows up weak instruction, 4; helps in reviews, 17; relieves teacher from making out examinations, 17.

Ways in which Examinations Hinder Effective Teaching.—They were also requested to state in what way, if any, their work was hindered by such examinations. It is evident from these records that, in so far as the majority of teachers are concerned, they find them helpful in the main.

| | |
|---|---|
| Number of reports | 1,079 |
| No answers | 550 |
| No hindrance | 345 |
| Yes | 185 |

1. As a hindrance to selection of content. Total 28, 16 percent.
   Takes time for preparation that could be more profitably spent on other things, 18; unimportant topics stressed, 5; narrows work down to a few points, 5.
2. As a hindrance in school procedure. Total 51, 29 percent.
   Encourages teaching for examinations alone, 14; makes too

much of a question-and-answer recitation, 5; cannot teach according to pupils' needs, 12; rush to cover work, 7; takes too much time from lower grades, 3.

3. In their influence upon pupils. Total 61, 35 percent.
   Makes pupils feel that passing examinations is only reason for work, 22; when examinations are passed children stop work, 2; daily work doesn't count in child's mind, 4; excellent pupils fail because of nervousness, 25; children do not do themselves justice, 6.
4. Not fair to the teacher. Total 33, 19 percent.
   Questions do not follow memorized school work, 7; too much depends upon passing, 3; examinations call for work not given in curriculum, 5; not a fair test, 4; covers too much for rural schools, 5; no credit for daily work, 3; teacher best judge of pupil's ability to go on, 2; parents judge teacher's work entirely by results of examinations, 4.

Influence of Examinations upon School Work, as Reported by Superintendents.—The superintendents were asked in what manner the examinations influenced the teachers' work. Their answers make an interesting and somewhat profitable basis of comparison with teachers' answers. In this report 5 of the 180 answers were indefinite. The others are as follows:

1. As a stimulus. Total 50, 20 percent.
   Stimulates teachers to greater effort, 14; compels drill and periodic reviews, 10; closer study of needs of each pupil, 2; ("Needs" here evidently means "needs to pass"); largely the incentive for instruction, 12; raises and preserves standards of instruction, 12.
2. As to aim. Total 61, 25 percent.
   Sets up definite goal and makes work definite, 23; teachers work with examinations as a goal, 20; teachers aim to pass examinations rather than to improve children, 18.
3. As to content. Total 44, 18 percent.
   Makes teachers careful to cover work in the examinations, 7; compels teacher to cover the syllabus, 18; confines work to course of study, 5; causes teacher to neglect important work not included in the examinations, 11; uses them to determine work in upper grades, 3.
4. Upon school procedure. Total 43, 17 percent.
   Questions are used in review, 17; in daily lessons, 2; makes

teachers more thorough, 4; discourages wandering and eliminates hobbies, 8; causes teacher to neglect lower grades, 2; type of questions in examinations determines method, 12.

5. Others. Total 45, 18 percent.
   As a basis of promotion, 9; means of testing work accomplished, 31; gives broader view of subject, 5.

A detailed study of these specific replies will give one a fairly comprehensive grasp of the rural teacher's relation to the examinations. In some respects they seem beneficial. In many respects they serve as a distinct handicap to the type of teaching a state should seek to foster and encourage.

In the first place they are mentioned as an incentive. Some teachers value them as incentives for pupils. Some district superintendents see in them stimuli to more aggressive teaching. Definite goals and evidence of progress and achievement are of unquestioned value. But to have the teacher's eye so trained upon distant examination, to find in this the major incentive to teaching effort, is not most beneficial to effective instruction. To pass examination rather than to improve children becomes the aim of the teacher. Pupils feel that passing examinations is the only reason for work.

This leads to a selection of content in terms of a distant goal. Values are not life values but rather examination values. It does prevent some profitless wandering. It also prohibits following the leads of children's interests that are fruitful for growth.

The use made of the former questions in preparing children for a successful issue at examination time shows how much they have become the real curriculum. Every phase of these preceding questions is taken up, even to the interpretation of the question and the proper working of a reply. Passing the examination, not individual growth, a memorizing of a proper answer, not clear thinking, become far too often the teacher's conception of an education.

Those who criticize them show on the whole, a more modern educational attitude. Children's needs are sacrificed to examinations, the lower grades suffer in order that the upper grades may receive the needed drill. Socialized recitations and discussions must give way to question and answer drill.

The implications of these answers with reference to the teacher's

and pupil's purpose and motive, and with reference to selection of content and method, the observations reported by field workers and the experience of the writer with rural teachers seems to warrant the conclusion that a progressive thinking body of teachers, a curriculum suited to the child's needs, and a conception of education by teacher and pupil as something vitally concerned with and fruitful for the life of today cannot be realized as long as the present examination system maintains its grip upon school life.

## CHAPTER XII

# THE CURRICULUM ACTUALLY PROVIDED FOR CHILDREN IN SCHOOL

THE reports from teachers and superintendents give some indication of the spirit of the teaching and supervisory force, their attitude toward and use of the state syllabi. They give us some basis for estimating their perception of educational purposes and values, their appreciation of local resources and needs, the nature and function of curriculum content, and its relation to local conditions. These reports give us some indication of the degree of initiative, constructive thinking and local adaptations that occur in rural schools.

This personal report from teachers and superintendents is indicative also of the things taught. It is not as accurate a measure, however, as we would wish. To get a more reliable answer to the most fundamental and significant question of all, namely, What educational experiences are being provided for rural children through the school?—eight people thoroughly experienced and specifically trained in rural education and rural school conditions spent about two weeks each in observing class-room work in rural schools. They observed teachers in 32 supervisory districts representing all sections of the state. Under the direction of the district superintendents they visited all types of rural schools: good, poor and average. In all they observed the work of approximately 250 teachers. They reported separately for each recitation observed. In all they reported upon over 2,000 recitations. Some of the reports were upon schools of more than two teachers. Some were for one reason or another not properly filled out. In our report we have used 1,343 reports distributed as follows:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Reading | | 386 |
| Arithmetic | | 341 |
| Geography | | 165 |
| History | | 108 |
| Spelling | | 157 |
| English | Grammar 57 | |
| | Language 85 | |
| | Literature 44 | |
| | — | 186 |
| Total | | 1,343 |

| | |
|---|---|
| Civics | 6 |
| Hygiene | 15 |
| Drawing | 3 |
| Music | 3 |
| Nature study | 7 |
| Physical training | 27 |
| Total | 61 |

Reports in these subjects were too few to be significant. They are not included in our table.

## A. The Course of Study as Indicated by the Recitation

### 1. Type of Recitation

| | Geography | History | Reading | English | | | Spelling | Arithmetic | Total | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | G. | L. | Lit. | | | | |
| No answer | 1 | 13 | 4 | .. | 1 | .. | 3 | .. | 22 | .. |
| Drill | 58 | 18 | 104 | 34 | 29 | 9 | 78 | 280 | 610 | 39 |
| Text rehearsal | 94 | 77 | 296 | 22 | 34 | 22 | 83 | 95 | 723 | 46 |
| Discussion of problem | 8 | 4 | 5 | 4 | 12 | 2 | 1 | 9 | 45 | 2.8 |
| Increased information | 18 | 15 | 15 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 11 | 7 | 73 | 4.6 |
| Appreciation | 2 | 2 | 58 | .. | 10 | 19 | 3 | .. | 94 | 5.9 |
| Report on construction | 5 | 1 | .. | .. | 12 | 3 | .. | .. | 21 | 1.3 |
| Answer questions from map | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .. |
| | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1,590 | .. |

An analysis of these results reveals a deadening routine that is appalling. The type of recitation is almost invariably a process of drill or textbook rehearsal.[1] For purpose in mind here these two might have been treated as a single type. Together they represent the procedure in 85 percent of the recitations observed. Discussion

[1] This distinction seems not to have been made by some of the observers. After all the distinction may be insignificant for our purposes since we are primarily interested in the content of the curriculum and the type of experiences afforded by school work.

of some fundamental question or problem during the class period is almost unknown. A very few teachers seek definitely to increase the child's information. Still more seek to instill an appreciation of some feature of the environment or some bit of the social heritage. Such efforts are confined, however, almost entirely to reading, language and literature. Constructive work, except for map drawing and composition, does not exist. One observer sums up her experience as follows: "In most cases I found the children slaves to the text book . . . . . The teacher in most cases used the question and answer method,—a text book rehearsal really,—which called forth no ingenuity on the part of the pupils. Only on rare occasions did I see the topical method employed. Out of the 61 different teachers visited only one used the visual instruction method in connection with her geography."

2. Information Brought in from Additional Printed Sources

| | | Geography | History | Reading | English | | | Spelling | Arithmetic | Total | | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | G. | L. | Lit. | | | | | |
| No answer.. | .. | 30 | 35 | 93 | 20 | 25 | 11 | 35 | 81 | 330 | | .. |
| None..... | .. | 130 | 60 | 283 | 35 | 56 | 28 | 122 | 257 | 971 | | 95.8 |
| Yes..... | 1[1] | 1 | 6 | 1 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | 3 | 13 | | .. |
| | 2 | .. | 2 | 5 | .. | 2 | .. | .. | .. | 9 | | .. |
| | 3 | 3 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5 | 42 or | 4.1 |
| | 4 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 5 | .. | .. | 1 | | |
| | 5 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 6 | | .. |
| | 6 to 10 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 8 | | .. |
| | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1,343 | | .. |

To the recitation of textbook information little else is brought from other printed sources. In only 42 or 4.1 percent of the 1,003 recitations[2] reported upon was such a contribution made by the

[1] This indicates the number of times in each recitation that such information was brought in, *e. g.*, such contribution was made only once in 13 of the 42 recitations.

[2] Here again the records were a little doubtful. 330 records had no answer for this point. This was due no doubt mostly to the fact that, since there was nothing to report, no indication was thought necessary. If the number not reporting to point 2 is compared with the small number not reporting to point 1, this conclusion seems to be supported. I judge that practically 100 percent of these should be added to the 971.

pupils. In one-third of these cases such contribution was made only once. One would judge that, with rare exceptions, such contributions are due merely to chance rather than a part of a definite plan.

3. Information Contributed from Personal Experience

| | | Geography | History | Reading | English | | | Spelling | Arithmetic | Total | | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | G. | L. | Lit. | | | | | |
| No answer | .. | 23 | 30 | 78 | 19 | 17 | 14 | 34 | 78 | 293 | | .. |
| No | .. | 124 | 70 | 267 | 35 | 57 | 20 | 116 | 259 | 948 | | 90.3 |
| Yes | 1 | 8 | 4 | 18 | .. | 1 | 2 | 1 | 5 | 39 | | .. |
| | 2 | 1 | 2 | 7 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 11 | | .. |
| | 3 | 3 | .. | 4 | 1 | 1 | 4 | .. | .. | 13 | | .. |
| | 4 | .. | .. | 4 | .. | 1 | 2 | .. | .. | 8 | 102 | |
| | 5 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 2 | or | 9.7 |
| | 6 to 10 | 1 | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | | .. |
| | Several | 5 | 2 | 6 | 1 | 2 | .. | 3 | .. | 19 | | .. |
| | Entirely | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5 | 2 | .. | .. | 7 | | .. |
| | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1,343 | | .. |

In some cases the rural child may not have access to other printed sources that bear upon the lesson. The teacher may not be acquainted with such material. But neither of these conditions hold, or should hold with reference to the child's experiences. The rural child has had abundant experience of a varied sort. The value of bringing it to bear upon the lessons of the day is unquestioned. The practical and functional view of education demands that the child have a clear appreciation of the relation of the work to his interests and activities. Yet the reports show that in rural schools children contribute to the lesson from their experience in only 102 out of 1,050 recitations, or in 9.7 percent of the cases. Again in 39 of these, or in more than one-third, such references occur only once. These data indicate that few teachers are offering their children a promising diet. In nineteen recitations the children made noticeable contributions. In seven of them the work was really a part of their experience. In 90.3 percent of the thousand and more recitations the children might just as well have been talking an unknown language so far as their lessons drew upon their out-of-school life.

Of course the fact that they did not thus contribute does not prove that the child is not aware of such relation. But the likelihood

is that he is not. Either this was true or he was too unconcerned to mention it.

4. Relating Work to Child's Experience

| | | Geography | History | Reading | English | | | Spelling | Arithmetic | Total | | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | G. | L. | Lit. | | | | | |
| No answer | .. | 23 | 29 | 75 | 17 | 21 | 14 | 34 | 66 | 279 | | .. |
| None | .. | 111 | 64 | 241 | 36 | 53 | 21 | 113 | 238 | 877 | | 82.4 |
| Yes | 1 | 15 | 7 | 30 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 15 | 76 | 187 or | .. |
| | 2 | 7 | 3 | 12 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 11 | 34 | | .. |
| | 3 | 6 | 2 | 11 | 1 | 3 | .. | 4 | 3 | 30 | | .. |
| | 4 | .. | 1 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 4 | .. | 1 | 11 | | .. |
| | 5 | 1 | 1 | 4 | .. | 2 | .. | .. | .. | 8 | | .. |
| | 6 to 10 | .. | .. | 3 | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | 1 | 6 | | .. |
| | Often | 2 | 1 | 6 | .. | 3 | 1 | 2 | 7 | 22 | | 17.5 |
| | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1,343 | | .. |

If the child does not of his own initiative make such application the teacher should. The teacher, however, does little better. Such a reference was made in 187, or 17.5 percent of the 1,064 recitations. In 76 of these the reference was made but once, and in 34 recitations, twice. It would have made the task too complicated to attempt to evaluate these references. Many of them were chance remarks, many were merely incidental. We may infer that a few of the lessons, perhaps those containing four or more such references, or 47 of the 1,064, were made of real significance to the children.

5. Teacher's Contribution to Book Content and Class Knowledge

| | | Geography | History | Reading | English | | | Spelling | Arithmetic | Total | | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | G. | L. | Lit. | | | | | |
| No answer | .. | 24 | 30 | 94 | 17 | 26 | 13 | 34 | 78 | 316 | | .. |
| None | .. | 104 | 59 | 272 | 37 | 54 | 27 | 120 | 254 | 927 | | 90.2 |
| Yes | 1 | 14 | 4 | 12 | .. | 3 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 39 | 100 or | .. |
| | 2 | 8 | 6 | 2 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | 19 | | .. |
| | 3 | 4 | 9 | 3 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 17 | | 9.7 |
| | 4 | 4 | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 6 | | .. |
| | 5 | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | 3 | | .. |
| | 6 to 10 | 3 | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 4 | | .. |
| | Several | 3 | .. | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 12 | | .. |
| | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1,343 | | .. |

Textbooks are necessarily brief and formal. They lack the richness of detail often needed to give their material significance. Moreover because of the rural child's isolation and his limited contact with other forms of life and activity, there is much that is foreign to him. The teacher should be to the child one source of this larger education. He should add something from his own richer experience to the dry facts of the text and to the child's limited world. This would seem to be one of the teacher's major contributions. In the work observed, however, the teacher was practically as dry as the test. He was a "hearer" of recitations. Of the 1,027 lessons reported upon he made such addition in only 100. Two-fifths of these were limited to a single contribution.

## B. Curriculum as Indicated by the Assignment

### 6. Type of Assignment

| | Geography | History | Reading | English | | | Spelling | Arithmetic | Total | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | G. | L. | Lit. | | | | |
| No answer | 9 | 2 | 46 | 7 | 10 | 7 | 29 | 48 | 158 | .. |
| No assignment | 17 | 10 | 59 | 4 | 6 | 10 | 58 | 75 | 249 | .. |
| Study text | 118 | 86 | 256 | 43 | 39 | 20 | 71 | 177 | 810 | 86.4 |
| Solve problem | 3 | 1 | .. | 1 | 2 | 1 | .. | 5 | 13 | 1.3 |
| Appreciate something | 1 | .. | 21 | 1 | 2 | 4 | .. | .. | 29 | 3.0 |
| Construct or create | 13 | 3 | 1 | .. | 16 | 5 | .. | 2 | 40 | 4.2 |
| Gather information | 13 | 10 | 8 | 3 | 1 | .. | .. | 1 | 36 | 3.7 |
| Indefinite | .. | 4 | 4 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 8 | 0.8 |
| | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1,343 | .. |

We turn next to the study of the assignment and find a similar state of affairs. The type of assignment given corresponds to the recitations heard. In 86.4 percent of the cases the next lesson consisted of a certain amount of material to be learned or memorized. Sometimes the teacher put the new work on the board, sometimes the pupils were to repeat the same lesson. Oftentimes they do not study the textbook, but study a Regents' Review and Regents answer book instead. But whatever they study, their task is the same. They learn the lesson and recite it to the teacher. The problem as a lesson is seldom found. Constructive work is limited

to map work and compositions. The purpose to develop appreciation appears, with extremely rare exceptions, only in reading.

7. Relation of Assignment to Preceding Lesson

| | Geography | History | Reading | English | | | Spelling | Arithmetic | Total | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | G. | L. | Lit. | | | | |
| No answer | 30 | 11 | 123 | 14 | 29 | 24 | 75 | 132 | 438 | .. |
| Next lesson or next few pages | 109 | 83 | 242 | 23 | 39 | 10 | 68 | 185 | 759 | 83.8 |
| No | 26 | 14 | 18 | 18 | 16 | 7 | 14 | 24 | 137 | 15.1 |
| Indefinite | .. | .. | 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 | .. | .. | 9 | 0.9 |
| | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1,343 | .. |

The teacher's skill in providing the children with a course of study suited to their interests, needs and experiences should express itself in her choice of the next lesson. In order to determine whether the new lesson was selected with reference to any other factor than textbook sequence, question seven was asked. The record indicates an almost uniform practice. Eighty-five percent of the teachers assign the next few lines in reading, the next section in spelling, the next few pages in geography or the next few problems in arithmetic. We have no way of telling how many of these teachers selected this next lesson after due deliberation. We do not know how often the lessons should vary from the book sequence. It seems safe to conclude from the preceding data that rural teachers are given too frequently to a stereotyped assignment and an uncritical following of the text.

The total effect of the curriculum, Regents examinations and supervision here finds clear expression. The teachers look upon the curriculum as something to be followed and administered. Textbooks are chosen that accord with it. Supervision checks the school's progress along this pre-arranged route and measures the teacher's efficiency by the same standard. The function of the elementary school is to enable pupils to answer the Regents questions passably. Rarely in the entire system do the child's interests, needs and experiences enter in. Seldom does the teacher exercise

any initiative. Only occasionally are educational values and objectives considered.

8. Method of Assigning Lessons

| | Geography | History | Reading | English | | | Spelling | Arithmetic | Total | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | G. | L. | Lit. | | | | |
| No answer | 18 | 11 | 123 | 12 | 29 | 20 | 86 | 145 | 454 | .. |
| Arbitrary | 134 | 92 | 244 | 41 | 49 | 22 | 70 | 187 | 839 | 93.2 |
| Developed | 9 | 4 | 13 | 1 | 8 | 1 | 1 | 10 | 47 | 5.2 |
| Suggested | .. | 1 | 6 | 3 | 1 | 2 | .. | 2 | 15 | 1.6 |
| | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1,355[1] | .. |

Comparable to Question 4 on the application of the recitation lesson to the children's experiences is Question 8 on the assignment. If school work is a purposeful, intelligent activity dealing with problems of vital, personal concern, the next lesson should be an outgrowth of the present one and intimately related to it. Among the teacher's functions is that of director and salesman, to see that children are impelled through "inner urge" to a study and mastery of new problems significant both to their own growth and to social progress. The teacher is responsible either for developing the new lesson out of the present one, or better yet, for securing such a proposal from the pupils.

Such procedure is practically unknown in the rural schools of New York State. Perhaps it is equally lacking in other states. The child's active participation in determining the new task occurs about once in every 60 assignments. The teacher's contribution to the value and clarity of the next lesson is not much greater.

In spite of the fact that the rural child must depend so largely upon himself during the study period in only 47 assignments out of a thousand, or in 5.2 percent, did the teacher really attempt to arouse an interest and to give the child some conception of the meaning and nature of the task before him. In 93.2 percent of the new

[1] More than one type was sometimes checked.

lessons the child approached the new work with indifference or trustful ignorance.

9. Special Assignment

| | | Geography | History | Reading | English | | | Spelling | Arithmetic | Total | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | G. | L. | Lit. | | | | |
| No answer | .. | 118 | 39 | 160 | 26 | 38 | 24 | 84 | 162 | 581 | .. |
| None | .. | 111 | 63 | 217 | 30 | 44 | 18 | 70 | 171 | 724 | 95 |
| Yes | 1 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 19 | .. |
| | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 2 | 6 | .. |
| | 3 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | .. |
| | 4 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| | 5 | 1 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | 5 |
| | 6 to 9 | .. | 2 | 1 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 3 | .. |
| | Entirely | .. | .. | 4 | .. | .. | .. | .. | 2 | 6 | .. |
| | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1,343 | .. |

Education in its final analysis involves specific changes in specific individuals. The course of study should, in so far as conditions permit, be suited to each child. We hear much criticism of the mass formation and lock step procedure in cities and of the opportunity for individual attention and variation in rural schools. One use of such opportunity should be found in the application of the lesson to each child's particular experiences. This, we saw by the facts under point 3, was not done. Another opportunity, and about the only other one available to the rural teacher who is so busy "hearing recitations" that she cannot supervise seat work, is found in the assignment of the next lesson. Here the teacher may give the child that particular reference, special task or additional work that will bring to him just the experience he needs or utilize for class benefit some of his special ability.

Does the rural teacher give attention to individual differences, experiences and needs? Does she suit the "general" course of study to the several children? The answer here is the same,—almost not at all. In answering this we did not consider those classes having only one pupil. Of these there were 213. In all the remaining classes were found only 38 instances of special assignments. In 19 percent of these such special work was given to only one member in the class.

10. Source of Next Lesson

| | Geography | History | Reading | English | | | Spelling | Arithmetic | Total | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | G. | L. | Lit. | | | | |
| No answer | 39 | 16 | 173 | 19 | 57 | 31 | 84 | 168 | 587 | .. |
| Text | 92 | 62 | 211 | 28 | 25 | 13 | 69 | 124 | 624 | 82 |
| Local resources | 2 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | 1 | .. | 1 | 5 | −1 |
| Reference books | 8 | 7 | 1 | 2 | 2 | .. | .. | .. | 21 | −3 |
| Notebooks and other sources | 2 | .. | .. | .. | 1 | .. | .. | .. | 3 | −1 |
| Regents helps | 31, 23% | 30, 30% | .. | 13 | 1 | .. | 5 | 23, 15% | 103 | 13 |
| | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 1,343 | .. |

The school aims among other things to bring the child into experiencing contact with his environment both social and physical, with current sources of information, present day problems and the accumulated social heritage in order that his own growth may be stimulated. We are coming to appreciate that the library, work shop, and daily life must become larger factors in this education. To what extent does the rural child come into contact with them through his course of study? The answer to this is found under point 10. In 82 percent of the lessons assigned he was directed solely to the text. Reference books are used in less than 3 percent of the classes and local sources of information in less than 1 percent. In this section of the report, the compelling power of the examinations is clearly seen. Thirteen percent of all assignments were made to Regents review books. This is even more striking when the particular subjects are examined. Twenty-three percent of all assignments in geography, 30 percent in history, 43 percent in grammar and 15 percent in arithmetic were given in this field.

The conclusion of it all is that the curriculum now being pursued by rural children is not providing an educational opportunity consistent with modern standards. In practically all the work observed the teacher drills the children upon some facts they were supposed to memorize or asks questions that call for textbook answers. They add nothing, he adds nothing. They do not apply it to their own experiences, and neither does he. The teacher then arbitrarily assigns the next lesson in the book without any individual attention

or additional references and sends the pupils to their seats to memorize the text for the next recitation.

One may ask what this has to do with the curriculum. This *is* the curriculum these children are following every day. One cannot say just how much the printed syllabi, the Regents examinations, and the state's attitude toward local initiative in using the curriculum are responsible for this. It is the belief of the writer that they are largely responsible both through what they have done and what they have failed to do. Any attempt to improve the curriculum must consider the task of stimulating its effective use in the class room.

## Teaching Equipment

Modern educational theory has greatly emphasized the importance of teaching equipment. So long as the educational process was considered as one of memorizing facts of acquiring skill in manipulating certain symbols, the textbook was a sufficient medium. In modern education the significance of equipment is emphasized by the fact that we seek, instead of a verbal memory of abstract rules and disconnected facts, clear and usable ideas. These can best be attained by an abundant use of concrete materials. In arithmetic we need weights and measures, blocks and number games. In geography we need maps, charts, globes and illustrative materials. The facts of history may become real through abundant pictures setting forth conditions and practices.

Moreover, if we conceive education as a period of real living, a period in which the child is provided with a rich experience out of which arise problems and purposes that challenge his efforts and is further provided with the essential means and guidance necessary to attain the desired ends, then school equipment becomes most important. The school ground, the library and the workshop would if our ideals were realized, become in a large measure the center of the child's activity, the means by which he would learn.

The importance of equipment in rural schools is emphasized by the fact that the rural child can spend so little of his time with the teacher. The median time rural children in New York State spend with the teachers is as follows for the several grades:

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Grade | 1 | 326 | minutes | per | week | 65 | minutes | a | day |
| " | 2 | 330 | " | " | " | 66 | " | " | " |
| " | 3 | 382 | " | " | " | 76 | " | " | " |
| " | 4 | 421 | " | " | " | 84 | " | " | " |
| " | 5 | 428 | " | " | " | 86 | " | " | " |
| " | 6 | 465 | " | " | " | 93 | " | " | " |
| " | 7 | 498 | " | " | " | 100 | " | " | " |
| " | 8 | 444 | " | " | " | 89 | " | " | " |

What can these pupils do with the remaining time? What things have they to do with? How fully is the teacher provided with the material necessary to make the work real to the child in nature study, in arithmetic, in geography, in history? Is the situation such that the child will find purposes that appeal, be stimulated to put forth effort? And if he should sense such desires, will he find the means of carrying them to a satisfactory conclusion?

A better answer could have been given to this question if the data on equipment could have been gathered by trained observers. This was not feasible. Consequently we had to rely upon the reports by teachers. The results of such reports are as follows:

TEACHING EQUIPMENT IN ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS.—TOTAL NUMBER OF REPORTS, 202

I. Number of schools having maps for each of the following geographical divisions:

| Kind of map | Number of schools | Percent of total |
|---|---|---|
| 1. County | 120 | 58 |
| 2. New York State | 156 | 77 |
| 3. United States | 179 | 88 |
| 4. North America | 140 | 68 |
| 5. South America | 125 | 61 |
| 6. Asia | 95 | 47 |
| 7. Africa | 89 | 44 |
| 8. Europe | 120 | 58 |
| 9. World | 89 | 44 |
| II. Number of schools possessing a globe: | | |
| 1. Number having globe | 183 | 92 |
| 2. Number not having globe | 18 | 7 |
| 3. No answer | 1 | .. |
| III. Number of schools possessing musical instruments: | | |
| 1. None | 102 | 55 |
| 2. Organ | 67 | 33 |
| 3. Piano | 18 | 9 |
| 4. Phonograph | 30 | 14 |

The number of phonograph records owned by the school ranged from 1 to 36, with the median at 12.

IV. Number of schools possessing the following nature study equipment:

| | Number of schools | Percent of total |
|---|---|---|
| 1. None | 142 | 70.0 |
| 2. Aquarium | 7 | 3.4 |
| 3. Charts | 24 | 11.8 |
| 4. Cabinet | 5 | 2.4 |
| 5. Terrarium | 2 | .9 |
| 6. Set of bud pictures | 24 | 11.8 |

V. Teachers were asked to give the number of children above the second grade having pens and ink. They were asked also to give the number of children in the entire school having colored crayons or painting equipment. The record is as follows:

| Percent of pupils having equipment | Pen and ink | | Crayon | | Painting equipment | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number of teachers reporting | Percent of total | Number of teachers reporting | Percent of total | Number of teachers reporting | Percent of total |
| 100 | 120 | 59.4 | 64 | 31.6 | 5 | 2.4 |
| 90 | 14 | 6.9 | 8 | 3.9 | .. | .. |
| 80 | 10 | 4.9 | 12 | 5.9 | 2 | .9 |
| 70 | 13 | 6.4 | 22 | 10.9 | 3 | 1.4 |
| 60 | 9 | 4.4 | 10 | 4.9 | 3 | 1.4 |
| 50 | 8 | 3.9 | 20 | 9.9 | 10 | 4.9 |
| 40 | 7 | 3.4 | 8 | 3.9 | 10 | 4.9 |
| 30 | 1 | .5 | 18 | 8.9 | 14 | 6.9 |
| 20 | 1 | .5 | 11 | 5.4 | 11 | 5.4 |
| 10 | .. | .. | 5 | 2.4 | 18 | 8.9 |
| None | 4 | 1.9 | 11 | 5.4 | 111 | 54.9 |
| No answer | 15 | 7.4 | 13 | 6.4 | 15 | 7.4 |

VI. Number of schools possessing the following articles for sewing:

| | Number of schools | Percent of total |
|---|---|---|
| Machine | 4 | 1.9 |
| Needles and thread | 55 | 27.4 |
| Materials for sewing | 21 | 10.4 |
| Pins | 57 | 28.2 |
| Tape line | 17 | 8.4 |
| Scissors | 86 | 42.5 |
| Thimble | 25 | 12.3 |
| Tracing wheel | 2 | .9 |
| Illustrative material | 20 | 9.9 |
| Tracing board | 1 | .5 |
| McCall patterns | 1 | .5 |
| Fully equipped workbag[1] | 1 | .5 |

[1] Teachers were encouraged to add other equipment.

In order to show the situation a little more clearly the data have been arranged below to show how many of the above articles schools are likely to possess. The following table shows that nearly 50 percent of the schools have none of the equipment listed. Thirteen percent possess one article, eight percent possess two. Seventy-nine percent possess three articles or less. And, by referring to the table above, we see these are likely to be scissors, pins, or needles and thread.

| Number of articles for sewing possessed by any one school | Number of schools | Percent of total |
|---|---|---|
| 0 | 100 | 49.5 |
| 1 | 28 | 13.8 |
| 2 | 17 | 8.4 |
| 3 | 16 | 7.9 |
| 4 | 15 | 7.4 |
| 5 | 13 | 6.4 |
| 6 | 10 | 4.9 |
| 7 | 2 | .9 |
| 8 | 1 | .5 |

VII. Number of schools possessing the following equipment for cooking, manual training and garden work:

| | Number of schools | Percent of total | Number of articles | Number of schools possessing this number | Percent of total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Oil stove | 14 | 6.9 | 1 | 139 | 63.8 |
| Cooking utensils | 26 | 12.9 | 2 | 14 | 6.9 |
| Serving dishes | 20 | 9.9 | 4 | 21 | 10.4 |
| Trays | 1 | .5 | 5 | 8 | 3.9 |
| Hammer | 45 | 22.4 | 6 | 5 | 2.4 |
| Saw | 10 | 4.9 | .. | 2 | .9 |
| Square | 5 | 2.4 | .. | .. | .. |
| Nails | 34 | 16.9 | .. | .. | .. |
| Materials | 10 | 4.9 | .. | .. | .. |
| Plane | 1 | .5 | .. | .. | .. |
| Hatchet | 1 | .5 | .. | .. | .. |
| Rake | 6 | 2.9 | .. | .. | .. |
| Hoe | 1 | .5 | .. | .. | .. |
| Spade | 8 | 3.9 | .. | .. | .. |

VIII. Number of schools possessing the following material for seat work:

| | Number of teachers possessing it | Percent of total |
|---|---|---|
| Sewing cards | 79 | 39.2 |
| Raffia | 13 | 6.4 |
| Weaving frames | 6 | 2.9 |
| Material for word building | 3 | 1.4 |
| Material for sentence building | 77 | 38.2 |
| Sand table | 12 | 5.9 |
| Paste | 120 | 59.4 |
| Scissors | 134 | 66.3 |
| Pictures to cut out | 98 | 48.5 |
| Pictures making games | 56 | 27.7 |
| Clay | 5 | 2.4 |
| Sticks | 5 | 2.4 |
| Number cards | 6 | 2.9 |
| Drawing cards | 5 | 2.4 |
| Magic dots | 2 | .9 |

In addition to the articles listed above, a few articles were mentioned once, such as: wall paper samples, paper weaving, bud outlines, silhouette cards, pictures, beads.

The equipment for seat work was distributed as follows:

| Articles possessed | Number of teachers having this number of articles | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| .. | 49 | 24.2 |
| 1 | 9 | 4.4 |
| 2 | 19 | 9.2 |
| 3 | 21 | 10.4 |
| 4 | 31 | 15.3 |
| 5 | 32 | 15.8 |
| 6 | 22 | 10.9 |
| 7 | 15 | 7.4 |
| 8 | 5 | 2.4 |

These figures signify that the median teacher has four articles used for seat work. These articles are likely to be paste, scissors, pictures to cut out, sewing cards or material for sentence building.

IX. Equipment for teaching arithmetic:

| | Number of teachers possessing | Percent of total |
|---|---|---|
| Scales | 7 | 3.4 |
| Ruler | 140 | 68.3 |
| Liquid measure | 6 | 2.9 |
| Dry measures | 5 | 2.4 |
| Blocks for teaching solids | 49 | 24.2 |
| Equipment for playing store | 17 | 8.4 |
| Flash cards for fundamental operations | 124 | 62.3 |
| Arithmetic games | 25 | 12.3 |
| Practice sheets | 17 | 8.4 |
| Maxon cards | 3 | 1.4 |

| Number of articles possessed by a teacher | Number of teachers possessing this number | Percent of total |
|---|---|---|
| .. | 28 | 13.3 |
| 1 | 42 | 20 |
| 2 | 64 | 31 |
| 3 | 45 | 21 |
| 4 | 12 | 5.9 |
| 5 | 8 | 3.9 |
| 6 | 1 | .5 |
| 7 | 2 | .9 |

The median teacher possesses two articles to assist in teaching arithmetic. These most probably are a ruler and a set of flash cards.

The significance of these facts can best be shown by presenting a picture of what the average one-teacher rural school will possess in the way of teaching equipment.

The average school would have maps of the following countries: county, state, United States, North America, South America, and Europe. It would also have a globe. It would have no musical instrument and no materials for teaching nature study. All the children above the second grade would have pens and ink, 60 percent of the children would have colored crayons, but no one would have any equipment for painting. The school would have no equipment for sewing, no equipment for cooking, for manual training or gardening work. The average school would have a very limited equipment in addition to books to occupy children while at their seats. This would consist of paste, scissors, pictures to cut out, sewing cards and, perhaps, materials for sentence or word building. The abstract nature of arithmetic is shown by the lack of materials for teaching arithmetic. This average school possesses only a few rulers and a set of flash cards.

It is impossible from the data at hand to pass judgment upon the condition of such equipment as rural schools do possess or upon the use made of it in teaching. A partial answer to the second question may be inferred from the data collected by the observers upon the recitation and assignment. A study of the text and a reciting of its content to the teacher makes up 85 percent of rural school work.

Concerning the condition of this equipment, observation of rural schools will not infrequently reveal that much of it is either old or unavailable for easy access and use. Maps may be out of date, torn

or standing in a corner, the globe broken or on top of a high shelf, the organ needing repair, and the oil stove used for a convenient side table. Doubtless the actual influence of this equipment upon the education of rural children is much less than the list of equipment possessed might lead one to infer. A modern, standard curriculum can scarcely be realized in schools with such limited equipment.

Supplementary readers are of fundamental significance in the reading ability of children. Much reading of new materials, rather than a deadening review of a single text is essential to comprehensive reading. Additional readers are even more significant as a means of giving the child a rich experience. Apart from the stimulus to comprehension that comes from new materials, wide reading in the field of literature, history, geography, animal life will give the child that breadth of experience so much desired. Supplementary readers are especially significant for children of the lower grades for whom other library books are but poorly provided. The supply of supplementary readers is as follows:

Number of schools reporting ..... 202
Number of schools not reporting on this question ..... 48
Number of schools reporting on this question ..... 154

VARIETY OF SUPPLEMENTARY READERS

| Grade I | | Grade II | | Grade III | | Grade IV | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number of kinds | Number of schools | Number of kinds | Number of schools | Number of kinds | Number of schools | Number of kinds | Number of schools |
| 1 | 53 or 52% | 1 | 73 or 79% | 1 | 65 or 70% | 1 | 61 or 72% |
| 2 | 22 | 2 | 13 | 2 | 23 | 2 | 19 |
| 3 | 12 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 6 | 3 | 3 |
| 4 | 10 | 4 | 1 | 4 | .. | 4 | 1 |
| 5 | 2 | 5 | 1 | 5 | .. | 5 | .. |
| 6 | 1 | 6 | .. | 6 | .. | 6 | .. |
| 7 | 1 | 7 | .. | 7 | .. | 7 | .. |
| | 102 or 66% | .. | 92 or 60% | .. | 94 or 61% | .. | 84 or 55% |
| .. | 52 | .. | 62 | .. | 60 | .. | 70 |
| | 154 | .. | 154 | .. | 154 | .. | 154 |

This record shows that of the 154 schools reporting, 102 or 66 percent had supplementary readers for the first grade, 60 percent for the second, 61 percent for the third and 55 percent for the fourth. Of the 102 schools reporting supplementary readers for the first grades 53, or 52 percent, had but one kind. Of the 92 schools reporting supplementary readers for the second grade 73, or 79 percent, had but one kind. The number of copies of each kind is as follows:

Numbers of Copies of Each Kind

| Grade I | | Grade II | | Grade III | | Grade IV | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number of copies | Number of schools | Number of copies | Number of schools | Number of copies | Number of schools | Number of copies | Number of schools |
| 1 | 106 or 62% | 1 | 34 or 29% | 1 | 38 or 41% | 1 | 28 or 30% |
| 2 | 27 | 2 | 21 | 2 | 16 | 2 | 17 |
| 3 | 13 | 3 | 33 | 3 | 21 | 3 | 20 |
| 4 | 15 | 4 | 11 | 4 | 13 | 4 | 11 |
| 5 | 2 | 5 | 13 | 6 | 16 | 5 | 16 |
| 6 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 3 |

From the table one might conclude that the teachers use whatever money is spent on supplementary readers wisely, for they evidently prefer to buy a few copies of several kinds rather than to buy many of one kind.

The significance of the situation with reference to supplementary readers is brought out by combining the evidence from the two tables. From the preceding table we find that sixty-six percent of the schools reporting have supplementary readers for the first grade. Fifty-two percent of these have only one kind of supplementary reader. From this last table we find that 62 percent of these reporting supplementary readers have but a single copy of each kind. In such a school situation as this the skill in reading is most seriously handicapped, interest in reading and profit from reading are greatly reduced.

## CHAPTER XIII

## GENERAL SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

THE curriculum for elementary schools has been examined (1) in its printed form (2) with reference to the use made of it by teachers and district superintendents and their attitudes toward it, and (3) as to the actual curriculum made available to rural pupils from day to day.

With a few exceptions the content of the various syllabi is poorly selected and has small bearing upon child activity now or his later social efficiency. This content is so meager and so formal as to be practically useless to the teacher in rural schools. The methods advised are, again with a few exceptions, too brief to be of service or woefully out of date. The organization of the material is mainly that of formal outlines or a random collection of unorganized facts. In such organization of materials as we find no attention has been given to the rural school's problem of many grades. Rural school conditions have been entirely ignored. The curriculum is entirely lacking in any service to teachers upon the many difficult and significant questions of efficient class room organization. Moreover, it is a product of many periods and many groups working independently. Taken as a whole the curriculum is lacking in any fundamental educational philosophy, or any basic psychological principles, or any unity of purpose.

Viewed with reference to its service to teachers and district superintendents, its value is very limited. This group who are most closely associated with the rural school problem and should have a valuable contribution to make have participated not at all in its construction and are doing but little in the way of reconstruction. To the teacher the curriculum is something to follow. To the

superintendent it is something to enforce. The uses they make of it are on the whole as formal as the curriculum itself. It tells them what to teach and when to teach it, what to emphasize and what may be safely neglected. A few go to it for advice on method, such as it is, and a few for new ideas. On the whole, it is not a source of abundant help, if we may judge by the teachers' replies or by examination of the contents of the syllabi.

The situation found in the class room is even worse. A deadening routine from day to day is the rule. Reciting the contents of textbooks and memorizing facts, often meaningless and useless, in preparation for some examination, is the daily recurrent experience of rural children.

As a means of improving existing conditions the following proposals are offered:

1. The present curriculum is largely out of date and not suited to rural school conditions and needs. A new course of study should be prepared in keeping with present educational standards, modern principles and practices. This should be constructed with particular reference to rural school conditions and to the resources and needs of rural children.

2. The following principles should be observed in constructing such curriculum:

(a) The major purposes of education; the specific objectives for each subject and each grade must be clearly defined.

(b) The principles of psychology and of education involved in curriculum making must be exactly determined.

(c) The content selected, its organization and the methods advocated must be consistent with these purposes and principles.

(d) The organization of the material must also be such as to facilitate educational efficiency in rural schools.

(e) Because of conditions existing in rural schools, this curriculum should give abundant advice with reference to the selection of content, the methods to be employed and in the many details of seat work, class room management and school organization.

3. In constructing this basic rural curriculum, provision should be made by the state department for utilizing the experience and judgment of all who are concerned with the problem of rural education. Conferences with state officers, specialists in the several

fields, district superintendents, teacher-training instructors and rural teachers should be held, and the field carefully discussed. Committees, specially fitted, should prepare various sections. All initial plans, methods of procedure, framework, and reports should be discussed, critically evaluated, coördinated, and, in so far as possible, tested in actual school room situations before being issued.

4. In order that the necessary local adjustments essential to a good curriculum be made, the printed course should specify the ends to be attained and give abundant suggestions and help as to means of realizing them. The state should institute a program of leadership in developing initiative on the part of intermediate officers and teachers in studying local needs, in utilizing local resources, and in suiting the state course of study to their pupils and community.

5. The present examination system should be reorganized to permit and foster local initiative in adjusting the curriculum to local conditions and in carrying on experimental work. Less emphasis should be given to examinations from the state office and more responsibility should be placed upon the intermediate officer and the local teacher for determining the status of any child.

6. In order that this new curriculum may be actually realized, greater attention should be given to the preparation of rural teachers. Work should be organized in training institutions which would prepare them, as fully as possible, for a critical evaluation of educational practices, for a careful diagnosis of educational situations to determine educational needs, and for the exercise of initiative and judgment in using educational materials to meet those situations.

7. Such a program necessitates also that intermediate officers of superior professional training, initiative, and leadership be selected to direct the activities of teachers in testing proposals, in applying wisely the recommendations of the curriculum and in discovering further economical and effective educational procedure for their schools.

8. Such a curriculum should not be looked upon as fixed or final. Education as a science and an art is continually being improved. It is not enough to provide for a local adaptation of the state issued

curriculum. The curriculum itself must be under continued revision.[1]

9. In order to keep the curriculum in accord with improvements in educational theory and practice, to promote its adjustment to local communities, and to promote constructive work on the part of officers of intermediate unit and rural teachers, it is recommended that someone in the State Department of Education be specifically appointed to exercise leadership in this field and to direct the work of continued revision and improvement.

10. The foregoing recommendations are offered as a means of improving the present situation under present conditions. As a result of such leadership on the part of the state, the time should come when the rural curriculum could be more scientifically constructed and more directly related to the educational needs of any given community by having each school unit, under the guidance of educational aims and values established by the state and under expert local leadership, determine its educational needs and provide such experiences as would most effectively promote the socialized growth of its children.

[1] This does not necessarily imply a continual reprinting of the curriculum. It does imply a definite, open-minded attitude toward it, and a change in the actual curriculum presented to children.

PART III

# THE COMMUNITY RELATIONS OF RURAL SCHOOLS

MABEL CARNEY

## CHAPTER XIV

## THE LEGITIMATE COMMUNITY RELATIONS AND ACTIVITIES OF RURAL SCHOOLS

NO question of rural welfare has been discussed with more frequency and fervor during the past ten years than the community service of rural schools. This is to be attributed very largely to the almost pathological condition of country life in many sections. Confronted with an arrested social development and realizing the many advantages of an organized agency like the school for social propaganda, rural sociologists, agricultural specialists, and even educators, have continued to heap community obligations upon the rural school and its defenseless young teacher until both have almost lost sight of their primary purpose. "To increase the corn crop five bushels per acre," "to include adult instruction and thus introduce ideas of progress relating to all phases of farm living," and "to build civilization in every part that is not receiving adequate attention from other agencies,"—these and similar statements characterize the rural literature of recent years as legitimate efforts and proper community relations for the rural school and country teacher.

With this interpretation of the function of the rural elementary school this study takes frank exception. Considered at face value

these expectations are absurd—absurd in that the present one-teacher school is of all educational agencies today the least efficient and poorly supported in its own special field, and therefore the least ready to enlarge its activities beyond those of minimum scope. Moreover, it is contended here that the social and vocational purposes implied above are not proper efforts for the average rural school. What, then, are the legitimate community functions and relations of the rural elementary school?

In any attempt to answer this question satisfactorily it is first necessary to define the fundamental purpose of rural elementary education and then hold rigorously to this definition as a criterion for evaluation throughout all suggestion. In doing this it is assumed here that the fundamental primary function of any school is to educate those for whom it was established. In the case of the rural elementary school this means the education of country children below high school age. It is also assumed for the purpose of this study that everything the school does should contribute directly or indirectly to this basic aim, and that in no case is it justified in undertaking secondary obligations which will cause it to neglect or supplant its initial responsibility.

## The Community Functions of the Rural School

More concretely stated this means that the community functions of the rural school, including both its elementary and secondary divisions and arranged in a descending sequence of their importance, should be as follows:[1]

[1] This investigation of the Community Relations of Rural Schools has been found especially difficult because no similar studies have yet been made and no standards established for the evaluation of data. For this reason, the above statement on the community functions of the rural school was first formulated by the writer as a criterion for judging the proper community relations of rural schools and then submitted for criticism to a group of 85 leading rural sociologists and rural educators throughout the United States. Sixty-nine of these responded, 48 of whom expressed themselves as in complete or practical agreement with the functions defined. Fifteen made a few slight suggestions for change which have either been embodied in the revised statement as here submitted, or met and eliminated through correspondence and explanation. Only one expressed strong opposition to the formulation. With this assistance and precaution it is believed that these community functions of the rural school may now be safely employed as standards for measuring the relative achievements of New York schools in this direction.

1. To educate those for whom it was established, that is, children and youth of legal school age.

This is the chief community service of the school as well as its fundamental educational function. The best service of the school to the community, in other words, must always be found in the proper discharge of its specific educational function, that is, in making itself a good school for the education of its pupils.

Doing this necessitates the interpretation of all subject-matter taught in terms of experience, and implies that the effective classroom teacher must have intimate knowledge of both the home and community life of her children.

2. To present a socialized curriculum which will make provision for extra-curricular or outside activities for children and thus indirectly effect the improvement of home and community life.

These socialized activities may be provided either directly by the school itself or indirectly through its co-operation with other related agencies, as Boys' and Girls' Clubs, Junior Red Cross, Boy and Girl Scouts, and Camp Fire Girls.

3. To educate the community into an adequate appreciation and support of education.

This may be done either through the maintenance of separate organizations for adults giving primary attention to school affairs, as parent-teacher associations and school improvement leagues; or through the close co-operation of other organizations, as granges, farm and home bureaus, or general community clubs, organized primarily for non-school purposes but willing to devote special attention to the study and advancement of educational needs.

The same end may also be fairly, though less well, achieved through the promotion of occasional public meetings and lectures sponsored by school authorities without the support of a definite community organization of any type.

4. To co-operate with other agencies in such of their activities as are educative to children of school age.

Practically all country-life organizations for adults make some provision for the education of the young in the fields of their major interest, and as long as these plans are in harmony with the under-

lying principles of education they should be cordially assisted and supported by the school.

5. To stimulate the establishment or regeneration of other community activities or agencies, when lacking or dormant, which are designed to supplement the school and minister directly to the welfare of children.

Included here especially should be such interests as health, recreation, and cultural advantages, including travel, library privileges, and opportunities to become acquainted with the world's best music and art.

6. To furnish information for putting adults of the community in touch with public and private agencies of county, state, and national scope which will contribute to their cultural or vocational welfare.

By this it is not meant that the school should supplant other agencies in the rural community but only that rural teachers and other school agents should be able to tell country people where to get needed help and service. The rural teacher may well direct farmers to government aids and publications on road-building, for example, even though she would not undertake to manage a road organization or give technical advice on the construction and care of highways.

7. To permit and encourage the use of the school plant, when the people so choose, as a general community center or common meeting place for other agencies and activities of the community.

Provided, that all the meetings or activities thus countenanced within the school shall be elevating in character; and that none of them shall interfere with the proper discharge of regular school duties.

8. When the essential needs of children have been properly met the school may extend its community function to include the post-school education of adults, both cultural and vocational.

But this obligation should not be assumed until children and youth of school age have been adequately provided for, and it is not

ordinarily possible to the rural elementary school as now organized and handicapped.[1]

Even for the high school the efficient discharge of this responsibility in addition to other primary obligations will very frequently necessitate an enlarged teaching staff and an increased equipment.

9. In addition to the foregoing educational functions, which constitute its chief community service, the school in common with other institutions and agencies owes a duty to the community well-being *per se*. This obligation demands a definite contribution from the school toward the general socialization of its adult population.

But such responsibilities as the school assumes toward this end should be related to its primary purpose of education, and may be best achieved as a by-product through the proper realization of the specific educational functions just stated.

Besides the above, the exceptional school in a typical environment or the typical school in an exceptional environment may occasionally become the outstanding social force of the entire community, stimulating or directing all or most of its activities—social, vocational, economic, and cultural, as well as educational.

Leadership of this type is legitimate for the school, however, only when it has first fulfilled the more restricted community relationships listed above, including the first especially; when it is located in an area where other community agencies are dormant or lacking; and when it demonstrates a willingness to regard its own domination as a temporary service and to give place to other institutions and agencies as soon as these are established.

In this connection it should be added that the extraordinary community service implied here for the teacher of a school of this type is not to be expected of any teacher in her capacity as a teacher,

[1] In this connection it is significant that North Carolina has recently abandoned its earlier practice of expecting rural elementary teachers to conduct adult classes for illiterates after school hours as well as the regular school work for children. Says Miss Elizabeth Kelly, director of this field for the Department of Education in a recent letter: "I agree with your statement that adult education should seldom be undertaken by the one-teacher rural school. This is why we are insisting on having special teachers for adults in our illiteracy work."

but rather that it may be permitted and approved of the exceptional teacher in her capacity as a citizen.[1]

### Special Functions of the Rural High School

For the purposes of this study it is assumed that all of the above functions hold as closely for the rural schools of New York as throughout the country at large. These standards have, therefore, been accepted in this survey as criteria for determining the proper community relations of both the one-teacher rural school and the rural or village high school.

One important difference between the high school and the rural elementary school should be noted, however. The high school because of its larger, better qualified, and less-burdened teaching staff may safely undertake more general socialization and adult education of a cultural type. Public lectures, lyceums, musical programs, art exhibits, extension work, short courses, health demonstrations, library service, and recreation activities, may all constitute typical phases of a high-school program for adult instruction. Because of its recognized function as an agency for vocational education the high school may also participate more freely in the vocational community interests of the adult population. It may be legitimate, for example, for the rural high school, with its special agricultural department, and working chiefly through the "home-project" activities of its regular students, to attempt "to increase the corn yield of the district five bushels per acre." But even with this enlargement of function the primary obligation of the high school, as of the elementary school, is to the children or youth it is designed to educate and no other purpose, however worthy, can be allowed to interfere with this initial duty.

### Community Responsibilities of the District Superintendent

The community responsibilities of the district superintendent differ from those stated above and implied for the rural elementary teacher and high school principal chiefly in degree rather than in

[1] The writer is especially indebted for help in the above analysis to Dr. Fannie W. Dunn and Miss Rosamond Root, both of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

Fig. 1.—Flag Raising and Neighborhood Gathering at the Hopson Rural School in Herkimer County near Dolgeville, New York.

For a detailed account of the social activities of this school see the Appendix, Section A, page 254.

Fig. 2.—Field Day at Belleville, New York.

The people of this community have maintained the famous Union Academy of Belleville since 1826, and around this old academy as a cultural center they have developed one of the most sterling and influential rural communities to be found in the world. For a full account of its history see a pamphlet by Emily F. Hoag entitled, "The National Influence of a Single Farm Community," Bulletin No. 984, Office of Farm Management, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

kind. As the general educational director of his district the superintendent is especially responsible for function *three* above, that is, for educating the community into an adequate appreciation and support of schools. The community responsibilities placed upon him as a citizen, in his private and personal relationships, are usually greater, also. Moreover, he must frequently assume responsibility for general adult education, both cultural and vocational, throughout his district in order that there may be more wide-spread prosperity and intelligence, and hence more interest and money for the support of schools and education in general.

### The Co-operative Method of Rural Social Organization

Such criticisms as were directed against the preceding statement of the community functions of the rural school by the eighty-five students of rural education and country life to whom it was submitted, and much of the current writing on this question, indicate that the school is expected to carry the brunt of rural community development simply because no better method than that of school domination has yet been realized. For this reason it seems justifiable to digress sufficiently at this point to present an alternative procedure for rural social organization which is now generally approved by rural sociologists and considered far more satisfactory than school control alone. The plan to be described may well be characterized as the co-operative method, since its chief characteristic is a harmonious co-operation of the various social agencies of country life, integrated for the attainment of common ends, rather than the special leadership and exploitation of any one institution or agency.

Under this policy of rural organization it is recognized at the outset that the small rural school district, in so far as it possesses social consciousness and cohesion at all, is not a community but a neighborhood, or sometimes part of a still larger neighborhood comprising two or more districts. The natural rural community in most regions and particularly in New York is a group of farming people, meeting frequently and holding common interests, who are served by the same primary trade center. Every normally developed state or agricultural area is composed of natural community units of this

type, centering around its towns and villages. These units in turn are made up of neighborhoods as defined by rural school districts, rural church parishes, grange territories, farmers' club areas, or other commonly felt and locally accepted influences or "controls." Functioning between these local communities, on the one hand, and the state, on the other, is the intermediate civil unit, which throughout practically the whole of the United States, even in New England for many purposes, is the county.

In organizing the social forces of these various units for effective community development two fundamental principles of rural organization must be kept in mind. The first of these relates to the difference in relative complexity between urban and rural life, and the second to the necessity for the federation of rural social forces.

A study of this difference of complexity between town and country shows that the limitations of farmers, in both time and money, as well as the essential unity of rural life and of the agricultural vocation, make extensive specialization and a multiplicity of rural organizations quite impossible. From this it is apparent that the open country neighborhood, even when it can be organized as a separate social unit, may be best served by one neighborhood organization of a general type designed to consider all the problems of the locality, either through special committees or through the coordination of minor groups or organizations in the neighborhood.

Such a plan operated in Minnesota for farmers' clubs during the last several years has proved highly satisfactory and shows the possibilities of this method. Here one general club open to every person in the neighborhood is organized and special "pace-makers" or leaders are appointed to represent and advance the various interests of the countryside, as roads, marketing, education, recreation, and scientific farming. The local rural teacher usually serves as the chairman of the education group, or committee, and is thus given the opportunity of keeping questions of school welfare before the people and securing their co-operation for any improvements needed. She has the further advantage, also, under this plan of encouraging the use of the school as a neighborhood center and of doing her full share as an interested citizen toward promoting the welfare of the neighborhood organization and helping to socialize

its individual members. In this way, the small rural neighborhood can provide for its essential social needs without attempting to foster the impossible number of separate organizations likely to be thrust upon it by the ambitious leaders of special interests from above or outside. In the field of education, for example, a separate parent-teachers' association or school improvement league is not necessary under this plan, or if organized, it can be made to function as the special committee on education within the general neighborhood association.

In the real community unit of the village or trading center best results in individual socialization and community welfare are to be secured through the federation of social forces and the development of a community council. This council, it is generally held,[1] should comprise the basic interests of social life and include the rural neighborhood organizations contiguous to the central community together with the several agencies and organizations of the village, as schools, churches, lodges, the chamber of commerce, women's club, grange, farm bureau, and Red Cross. Its specific functions should be to study the needs of the community, formulate a comprehensive program for their solution, and then harmonize and federate the various social forces and agencies of the community in the realization of this program. In the case of this larger community unit separate organizations cannot, and should not, be reduced to committees, however, but encouraged to retain their identity and individual programs, and to unite through the council only for the common purposes named above.

Here again the local school forces, including especially the village superintendent and high school principal, will have exceptional privileges, not only in maintaining any separate organizations needed for school affairs but in heading the education committee of this council and so keeping the needs of the schools before the public. Both should work through the council individually, also, as interested citizens and contribute in every way possible to its success. But it is evident that the secretaryship or chief responsibility of

[1] For an able discussion of this whole question of rural community organization see an article by Professor Dwight L. Sanderson in the Third Annual Proceedings of the American Country Life Association (University of Chicago Press).

such a federation of community forces is too heavy a task to be carried by one whose time is already heavily mortgaged to the children and youth of the community. Hence this office, though temporarily filled sometimes by the high school principal or superintendent, should ultimately be provided for either through the employment of a professional director or through the training of a resident leader of leisure and ability.

In the county unit the accepted ideal is for some form of county council composed of the local community councils from the village centers and the basic general interests and organizations of the county at large. The chief objectives of the county council, as of the local community council, should be to investigate county conditions and needs, to work out a long-term plan for county improvement, and to unite all agencies and social forces of the county behind this program. For all this, a special professional agent or county community organizer, somewhat similar to the county farm agent, but devoting full time to problems of social and community welfare throughout the county and in its local communities and neighborhoods, is growing increasingly essential. Meanwhile the county or district superintendent of schools is serving acceptably in this capacity in many instances. Such leadership and service is invariably rendered at the sacrifice of other official duties, however, and for this reason should not be regarded as a proper function of the office. When undertaken at all it should be done with the clear understanding that it is but temporarily assumed until an employed agent can be secured and that this additional task is voluntarily discharged by the superintendent in his capacity as a citizen, and not as a required or expected part of his official duties as a school superintendent.

From the foregoing analysis it is plain that the adequate organization and development of rural communities is too great a task for any one agency or individual leader to assume. It requires rather the cordial and intelligent co-operation of all interests and the formation, in spirit if not in name, of a community council in which every agency may have representation and voice. Equally patent is the fact that the school or church or other single organization or institution which tries to dominate this whole situation will be

forced beyond its strength and must sooner or later not only create friction and jealousy, but neglect its own primary obligations in the effort. Just such a peril threatens the rural school at the present time and it is against this danger that the restricted statement of community functions given above has been formulated and used as a basis for standards in this survey. Under no other policy, it is held, can the school give adequate attention to its own specific functions or free its special agents to develop the high degree of professional idealism and technical skill which must characterize its activities for best service both to the children it safeguards and to the community as a whole.

## CHAPTER XV

# FINDINGS ON COMMUNITY RELATIONS

### A. For Rural Teachers and One- and Two-Teacher Country Schools

INFORMATION for the present study on the community relations of New York rural schools was secured from a questionnaire filled out by 1,480 rural teachers and from personal visits made by field workers to 173 widely scattered rural schools. The teachers replying were very generally dispersed, representing every distinct geographic region of the state and thirty-eight diversified counties. Under these conditions it is believed that the sampling used here, though small, is fairly typical.

The general purpose throughout these inquiries was to see how fully the average rural school of New York discharges the community obligations set up as proper standards for such work in the preceding pages of this discussion. The first two functions stated above have been assigned for investigation to other divisions of the survey, however, and will be but slightly considered here. The chief concern of the present study is that phase of the problem expressed under function three.

Securing Community Support for Education.—For this reason five questions on the blank in a total of ten attempted to learn what activities and opportunities rural teachers created for educating their communities into an adequate appreciation and support of schools. From these inquiries it developed that only 26 rural schools or 1.7 percent of the 1,480 reporting had a definite organization for adults giving special attention to school affairs. These 26 organizations were parent-teacher associations. Twenty-seven schools report farm and home bureaus or granges assisting

in the advancement of school needs, however, and 21 schools report the same assistance from general community clubs, making a total of 3.2 percent for assistance from co-operating organizations as against 1.7 percent for assistance from specialized organizations devoting full attention to school needs. From this it appears that when the rural school forces of New York try at all to reach the public for school purposes they do so through the channels of regular farm organizations. The vitality and influence of these organizations is to be determined in part by their frequency of meeting. From this point of view it is significant that 44 met monthly, 18 oftener than once a month, and 12 less often.

To test the data given above letters were sent later to 100 district superintendents asking for a list of their one- and two-teacher rural schools on which all districts maintaining school improvement associations or similar organizations devoted specifically to school affairs should be checked. Seventy-six replies to this request were received, 40 of which reported no organizations whatever of this type. The other 36 superintendents reported from 1 to 17 or a total of 148 such associations, making an average of but four per supervisory district.

Realizing that many districts lacking definite organizations would at least hold community meetings for the discussion of school issues a second question on the blank related to gatherings of this type. Here the results were more encouraging: 714 schools or 48 percent reported meetings of this kind. Most of these, on the other hand, 525 or 73 percent, were mere school entertainments, and it is doubtful whether they assisted greatly in enlightening the community toward a larger support and appreciation of education. But that the people of the state are generally interested in the type of gathering held is indicated by the report of good attendance for 31 percent of these meetings and of poor attendance for but 3 percent.

Still another opportunity available to the rural teacher for educating the public into an adequate appreciation of schools lies in persuading parents to visit school and become acquainted with the purposes and needs of education. In this effort New York rural teachers rank high. Only 139 of the total number replying report

no visitors at school during the year, while 813 or 55 percent record the visits of from five to forty school patrons each.

To supplement the information gained from the questionnaire on this matter of reaching the public for school purposes the director wrote recently to the official heads of the leading farm organizations of the state to learn how much attention their associations were giving to school matters and whether the ordinary rural school building was used to any extent as a meeting place for their local units. The replies to both these inquiries were necessarily guarded and general for lack of definite facts, but such information as was vouchsafed reinforces the data given above and indicates still further that the people of rural New York simply are not being reached and enlisted for the support of schools neither through special organizations, primarily designed for the purpose, nor through occasional public meetings or the co-operation of regular farm organizations.

"The local farm bureaus do not include school interests as a part of their regular program," says Mr. J. Coryell, County Agent Leader for the state. "Occasionally rural school houses are used for meetings and from time to time county-wide meetings are held in school houses in the larger centers but this is not the general practice." Concerning the Dairymen's League Mr. E. R. Eastman, its editor, writes: "The local dairy leagues all meet at irregular intervals for the purpose of discussing economic questions relating chiefly to the marketing of farm products, particularly milk. Social and educational questions are discussed only incidentally. These local leagues use the school houses to a considerable extent. On a guess, I would say that perhaps fifty percent of them use school houses, although this is only a very rough estimate. In answer to question three, I must state that the advancement of rural education is not set down as one of the purposes of the local organizations, but the parent organization is interested in all social questions which bear upon the welfare of farmers." The Grange does but little better, according to Mr. Glenn C. McNinch, one of its official representatives on the Joint Committee on Rural Schools, who says: "I think that local granges pay but very little attention to school improvement. A discussion once or twice a year on schools

or some phase of school work in the state is about all that is done. There is no real study of local conditions as they exist and of ways and means of bettering them. Very seldom are the school buildings used as meeting places for the local grange. I know of no places."

Knowledge of Home Conditions.—In determining their knowledge of home conditions as a basis for teaching a good school (see function one above) teachers were asked as to the number of families they had visited in person during the year. Here a highly creditable record is shown. Two hundred seven of those reporting or 14 percent had called upon all the families in the district from which children were enrolled, while 934 or 63 percent had visited over half the families represented in their schools. Eighty-four percent of the teachers considered claim, further, that they are making specific attempts through regular school work to develop a good community attitude on the part of their pupils in matters of health, good government, fair business dealing, and accepted social standards.

Children's Clubs.—The achievements of New York teachers on the second community function stated above, namely, that of presenting a modern curriculum in terms of daily living, are set forth in some detail under another division of the survey. The general practice in providing extra-curricular or outside socialized activities for children was investigated here, however, through a study of the juvenile organizations in which children are enrolled. From this inquiry it developed that Health Clubs and Crusaders are organized in 1,056 or 71 percent of the schools reporting, home projects or Junior Extension Work in 312 or 21 percent, the Junior Red Cross in 226 or 15 percent, Boy Scouts in 146 or 9 percent, Girl Scouts in 38 or 2 percent, and Camp Fire Girls in 24 or 1. 6 percent. This general prevalence of Health Clubs is most unusual, it should be noted, and speaks very highly for the aggressiveness and activity of the Health Division of the Department of Education, to which this work should be accredited. From an incomplete and partial study made on this subject it appears, in fact, that New York leads all other states in the number of Health Clubs organized in both urban and rural schools.

Teachers report themselves as leaders for the children's organiza-

tions listed above in 792 or 53 percent of the cases given and as but partially responsible in 6 percent. Exclusive of Health Clubs, however, which are entirely a school project in New York, the teacher-leadership for all other juvenile organizations is but 40 percent and is most common in Junior Extension Work, being 6½ percent here.[1] In the judgment of field visitors teachers show a conscious purpose in this work in 74 percent of the schools observed but none in 26 percent. As noted later this record in children's clubs, though not unusual, is another of the most commendable showings of New York rural teachers as found under this phase of the survey.

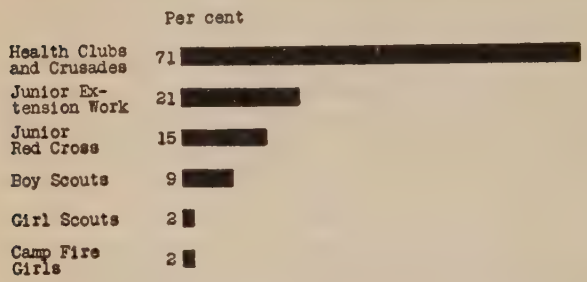



Diagram 2.—Percent of one- and two-teacher schools having children's clubs.

The Co-operation of Rural Schools with Other Agencies.—The ability of rural teachers to co-operate with other agencies in such of their activities as are educative to children of school age was studied through an analysis of teacher-membership in local community organizations. Nine hundred fifty-seven or 64 percent of the 1,480 reporting on this question testify to membership in one or more community organizations in the communities where they teach. Most of this (691 cases or 72 percent) is church membership or Sunday School participation (539 mentions or 56 percent). Next in order comes the Red Cross, with 320 reports, the Grange with 289, and the Farm and Home Bureau with 146. With the exception of the church and Sunday School it is readily apparent that these figures run low. But the church-belonging proclivities of the teach-

[1] In the Missouri survey of 1917 ten percent of the rural teachers reporting supervised boys' and girls' club work. See the State Superintendent's Report for June, 1918.

ers responding are exceptional and should speak well for the future salvation of the youth of the state.

Stimulating Other Forces and Furnishing Information for Adults.—Functions five and six, the capacity of rural teachers to stimulate other community activities or agencies designed to advance the welfare of both children and adults, were studied chiefly from the reports of field visitors. From this it appears that New York rural teachers are unfortunately weak in this respect. Almost 80 percent show no qualifications whatever in this direction while two-thirds are reported as comprehending the social and economic problems of rural life "very little" or "not at all." The underlying cause for all this is revealed later, when it is reported that but 6 percent of the teachers seen had ever had any course or training for this purpose and these but "slight preparation," as gained from institutes and occasional lectures and books. In this connection it may be added that curriculums for the preparation of rural teachers in both normal schools and training classes are open to just criticism on this point. Courses in rural sociology and country life are utterly unknown in either institution. Indeed, there can be but little surprise in the preceding evidence to those who know the teacher-training situation of the state in any detail.[1]

Use of the School as a Community Center.—The influence of the typical rural school building of the state upon the social activities of schools and teachers is revealed by the fact that 49 percent of the schools reporting claim no conveniences whatever for community gatherings, not even such common necessities as coat rooms, good lights, or movable seats. The items most frequently checked on the other 51 percent of the 1,480 blanks reporting some conveniences were coat rooms (411 mentions), organs (378), phonographs (147), good lights (132) and piano (115). Movable seats and class rooms with sliding doors were mentioned less than 50 times, while equipment for community suppers was named but 25 times and then only in two-teacher schools. From this and the general study of school buildings made by Professor Butterworth elsewhere in the survey, it is easy to understand why but few rural

[1] For a further discussion of this matter see Professor Bagley's division of the Survey on the *Preparation of Rural Teachers*.

school plants are used as "community centers" or general meeting-places for other agencies and activities of the neighborhood. That this is true has already been shown in the letters quoted on page 224.

Adult Education and Socialization.—As formerly stated (p. 215), adult education throughout this discussion is not considered ordinarily feasible for the rural elementary school as now organized and handicapped. For this reason no attempt was made to measure the rural schools of New York in this respect.

The general socializing influence of the one-teacher school as defined in point nine among the community functions stated above has already been pretty well measured by the data gathered for other functions, particularly the third. But with less than 5 percent

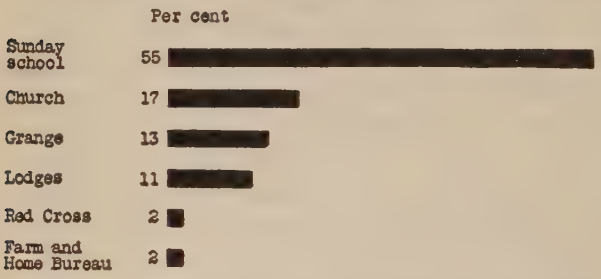



Diagram 3.—Offices held by rural-school teachers in community organizations. Percent of the 389 offices held in the organizations named.

of the districts responding organized for school improvement in any way it is evident that there can be but small "by-product" of this type when there is so little chief product as indicated by these findings. Moreover, it is clear from the replies given that farmers in New York do not regard the rural school district as a social unit. At any rate their place of meeting for social purposes was in the village in 640 or 38 percent of the cases cited; in both the village and the country in 689 or 41 percent; and in the country only in but 352 cases or 21 percent. Much of this is due no doubt to the good roads of the state and to the fact that about 70 percent of the schools considered were less than four miles from a village.

The ability of rural teachers for leadership in both school and community organizations contributes greatly to the general social

influence of the school. Responsibility of this type was measured by the number of offices held. Twenty-eight percent of all rural teachers report themselves as holding office in one or more community organizations. But these offices are largely assistant-ships, including chiefly Sunday school positions and secretarial duties for granges and lodges. This whole question of leadership was gauged, also, in the reports of field visitors. Here the evidence is less complimentary. Among 158 teachers observed only 54 or 34 percent are rated as possessing "the necessary qualifications for effective leadership to any appreciable degree." Under these conditions can there be any doubt but that the definite contribution of the one-teacher school toward the general socialization of its adult population is greatly reduced, and in many instances practically lacking altogether?[1]

### B. Findings for High School Principals and Rural and Village High Schools

The data from high schools on community relations were gathered mostly from 150 questionnaires sent out and tabulated by the writer, but in part also through the kindness of Professor Emery N. Ferriss of Cornell University, who furnished information from his own study of high schools for three items included here.

Organizations Co-operating with High Schools.—Among 392 high schools tabulated by Professor Ferriss 158 or 40 percent report some community organization actively co-operating with the school. Chief among these are 74 parent-teacher associations and 55 granges. The list includes also 20 home and school clubs, 16 women's clubs, 11 home bureaus, 5 community center associations, 5 Women's Christian Temperance Unions, 4 Red Cross Organizations and 3 Alumni associations. In this connection it is significant that 24 percent of the high schools have parent-teacher associations or home and school clubs while only 1.7 percent of the country schools report such organizations. It is also significant that 94 or nearly half of the 193 community organizations actively assisting high schools

[1] The practice of teachers in remaining over week-ends in their districts has some bearing on this matter of leadership. On this point it is interesting to note that 57 percent of the rural teachers surveyed in Missouri in 1917 spent most of their week-ends in the district, while in New York only 20 percent do so.

should be associations of adults specifically organized for this purpose, whereas rural schools get such assistance as they receive from general farm organizations created primarily for other purposes and giving but passing attention to education. This contrast, it may be noted in passing, but bears out the conclusions presented on p. 218 regarding the advisability of attempting a multiplicity of organizations in the rural neighborhood.

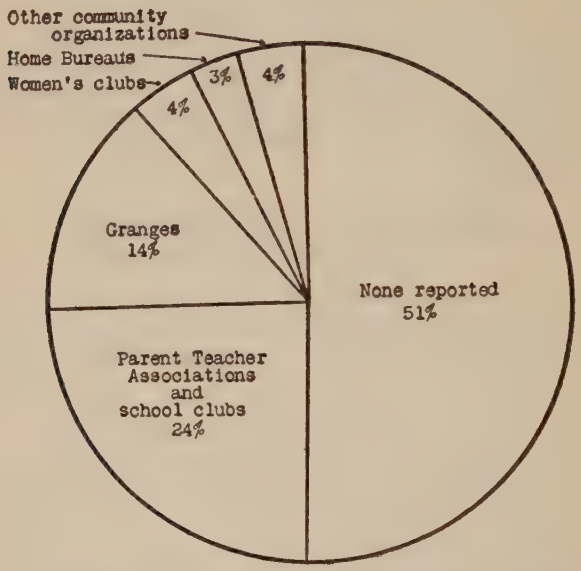



Diagram 4.—Organizations co-operating with high schools. Percent of the 392 high schools replying.

Extra-Curricular Activities.—In extra-curricular activities high schools outstrip rural schools, also, 402 or almost 100 percent reporting affirmatively here while the proportion for rural schools on the same point was only 71 percent. Foremost in this list of pupil activities for high schools are athletic associations, Boy Scouts, school papers, orchestras, Camp Fire Girls, and glee clubs. Heading the list for rural schools, it will be recalled, were health clubs, home projects, the Junior Red Cross, and Boy Scouts. (See p. 226.)

Another significant community activity of village high schools for the purposes of this study is to be found in the work of principals for interesting rural pupils in high school attendance. Of the 385 schools tabulated on this inquiry by Professor Ferriss, 174 or 22 percent made some form of appeal to country children. This is good, so far as it goes, though when it is recalled that the village high school presents practically the only opportunity of the rural child for secondary education the inadequacy of the effort will be readily appreciated.[1]

Co-operation with Other Agencies.—The co-operation of high school principals with other agencies in such of their activities as are educative to youth of school age reveals a variety of interests with the following results standing out prominently in a total of 150 replies: Church, mentioned 40 times, Red Cross 30 times, farm bureau 22, women's clubs 19, Grange, library and American Legion 15 times each, the home bureau and Y. M. C. A. 10 times each and chambers of commerce 9 times. Only 25 or 16⅔ percent of all principals reporting profess no effort of this type, leaving a total of 83⅓ percent who are active in this way and thus establish a creditable record in this field for their entire group.

Activities of Principals in Starting New Organizations.—In the matter of starting or regenerating organizations designed to supplement the school and minister directly to the welfare of children the record of high school principals is much less flattering. Eighty or 53 percent state that they have accomplished nothing in this direction while 54 or 36 percent reply affirmatively. The organizations detailed under these 54 replies are greatly varied and show but little conscious purpose toward developing health, recreation, and the cultural interests considered here as proper corollaries of the basic community function of the school.

In Furnishing Information for Adults.—The service of high school principals in acting as sources of information for putting adults of the community in touch with other agencies which will contribute to their welfare constitutes a very interesting unit of the present study. Seventy-five, or just half the number under consid-

[1] For concrete accounts of what some high schools are doing in this direction see the Appendix, Section B.

eration, claim credit for this effort, while 65 reply negatively and 10 make no answer. The chief subjects on which inquiries are made according to this data include recreation with 51 mentions, farming with 45, health work with 41, and church matters with 26. Other subjects mentioned less often are roads, chautauquas, and Red Cross activities.

Community-Center Uses of the High School Building.—The use of the high school building as a general community center or meeting place for other organizations beside the school is reported by 79 or 53 percent of the principals replying, and disclaimed by 70 or 46 percent. The school plant seems but sparingly used, however, by any one organization except parent-teacher associations which would naturally make it their headquarters. All of the more staid and important organizations of adult community life, as the grange, farm and home bureau, chamber of commerce, woman's club and health associations seem to use it but very seldom. In 53 cases as against 97 in the complete total of 150 replies the school building is used, however, for general community gatherings exclusive of those fostered by the school, as for occasional lectures, musical entertainments, community supper, and voting purposes.

Adult Education and Socialization Through High Schools.—In the matter of adult education, which is considered here a special function of the high school rather than of the elementary rural school, New York rural high schools make a reasonable showing. Eighty-two schools of the 150 listed are doing something in this direction. Sixty claim nothing and 8 make no report. The activities most frequently mentioned in this list of efforts are public lectures with 37 notations, recreation and library service with 31 each, dramatics 30, musical entertainments 30, extension work and short courses 21, art exhibits 18, health work and agricultural assistance for farmers 16 times each, and night schools 8.

Chief among the reasons given for omitting this work by those who answered negatively were: That the high school faculty was already over-burdened with regular school work; that such efforts were not expected by the people and not supported by them when undertaken; that they were provided by other agencies; and in one case that they were "opposed by the capitalistic class who want to

keep the foreigners here in ignorance and servility." Another, speaking of the surrounding rural population, adds "there seems to be little that farmers in this district will be interested in except movies, automobiles, dinners, and opposition to any interference with their local school system."

Upon the whole the most revealing characteristic of these 150 blanks from as many high school principals in New York state, lies in the fact that the sixty principals who profess to no activities in adult education offer practically no excuses for their lack of effort in this field. This by one interpretation, at least, would seem to indicate an untroubled conscience in the matter and a general insensibility to either personal or professional responsibilities for any attempt at socializing the adult population of the community. Be this as it may, it seems evident that village high schools in New York are not so alert to the community responsibilities and opportunities about them as might be desired for the best interests of the commonwealth, nor as are the small high schools of some other states. (For comparative studies see Appendix B.)

### C. The Community Activities of District Superintendents

The community activities of district superintendents were studied chiefly from returns on a questionnaire filled out by 180 of the 207 officers of this type in the state. First-hand impressions were gathered from a number of field visitors, also, and something has been learned as a by-product from the study of rural schools.

The chief community responsibility of the district superintendent, as for the teacher, aside from his fundamental function of guaranteeing good instruction, is undoubtedly that of educating the community into an adequate appreciation and support of schools. In this he carries more responsibility than any other school agent. For this reason most of the direct inquiries put to superintendents related to this point. Chief among these were the following: "How many public meetings have you addressed in person since August 1, 1920? For how many other public gatherings have you procured speakers? What other means of community development are you employing beside public meetings? What are your chief aims in the community activities you undertake? What handicaps

do you meet most frequently in your efforts to attain these purposes? How often and on what occasions during the past year have you co-operated with other county and social agents in community activities outside the school? Should the district superintendent, in your judgment, be the chief promoter of community organization in his district or not? And if you think not who should?" The replies to these questions, which were both exhaustive and discriminating in several cases, can be but briefly summarized here.

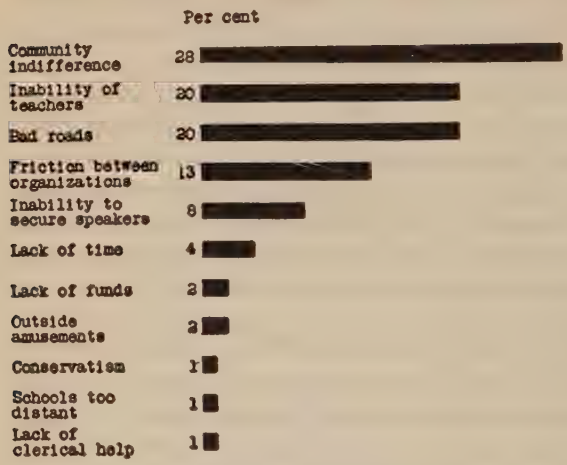



Diagram 5.—Handicaps met by district superintendents in community work. Percent of the 494 handicaps mentioned in the 164 replies.

Means of Community Development Employed.—One hundred forty-five or 80 percent of the superintendents reporting had addressed one or more school and community meetings during the year. But 29 or 16 percent report addressing no meetings of any kind, and 125 or 69 percent addressed fewer than 10 or less than an average of one per month, while only 5 percent reached more than 18 a year, or an average of two per month. The average number of meetings addressed per superintendent for the year was 5. Speakers were procured for meetings by 61 percent of the superintendents replying, the average number of meetings thus assisted per superintendent being 3.

Among the other means of school and community development employed by superintendents, circular letters and newspapers rank first, being used in each case by 80 percent of those reporting. Field meets (70 percent) and general community conferences (41 percent) come next, with children's clubs and projects (32 percent) and regular class work (34 percent) following. With this it is noteworthy that only 6 percent of all superintendents considered are publishing a monthly paper for teachers and patrons, and that but very few issue printed annual reports for the public. Only one superintendent employed all the 10 means of community development mentioned; 2 employed 9 means; 4 employed 8; 22–7; 28–6; 45–5; 37–4; 21–3; and 7–2. The average number of means for community development employed by superintendents was 4.

Aims in Community Work.—The chief aims of district superintendents in the community work they undertake are declared to be first, co-operation (mentioned 76 times in 180 replies); second, better schools (44 mentions) and third, neighborliness (25). To these are added the development of citizenship (20) and the desire to attack general community problems (11). Other aims mentioned a minor number of times include health improvement and child welfare, the development of rural spirit, making the school a social center, the training of leadership, the inauguration of parent-teacher associations and farm bureaus, and the realization of Christian ideals. Upon the whole these will be recognized as commendable purposes.

Handicaps Met.—The handicaps most frequently met in attempting these ends are reported as community indifference (mentioned 139 times in a total of 180 replies); bad roads and lack of co-operation and ability among teachers (99 mentions each); friction and jealousy between organizations (62); and lack of time for such work on the part of superintendents (19). Among the other difficulties mentioned less often yet given some weight are lack of funds, the competition of outside amusements, general conservatism, lack of clerical help, the absence of school accommodations for crowds, sparse population in certain areas, a lack of physical endurance on the part of some superintendents, and the fact that children and young people cannot participate in community activ-

ities because of overwork at home. All of these restrictions, it might be noted in passing, may be justifiable excuses for limited efforts in this work, but there is no one of them which cannot be overcome by a determined and progressive policy in community relations, as the records of some of the ablest district superintendents amply testify. (See Appendix, Section C, pp. 267–270.)

The Co-operation of District Superintendents with Other Agencies.—Co-operation between district superintendents and other county or social agents is affirmatively reported by 143 or 79 percent of the 180 individuals replying. In this co-operation the agencies figuring most prominently are farm and home bureaus (mentioned 86 times); the Red Cross (71 mentions); the Grange (60); the church (45); and health associations (31). Other organizations receiving occasional mention include junior project work, the Y.M.C.A., the Junior Red Cross, parent-teacher associations, chambers of commerce, women's clubs, and Boy Scouts.

Responsibility of the District Superintendent for Community Organization.—The last inquiry of the blank which related to the responsibility of the district superintendent for serving as the chief promoter of community organization in his district, revealed much variety of opinion. Forty-seven percent of those answering think the superintendent should not assume this obligation, while 25 percent think he should, and 26 percent are uncertain or offer qualified replies. Those who favor such service on the part of the district superintendent maintain that he is often the ablest leader available, that such community work is essential to school welfare, and that it is a good means of securing contact with local communities. The chief reasons offered by the majority opposing this responsibility are "a lack of time and too many other duties," that "leadership should come through local initiative," and that "such work should be done by specialists." From the introductory discussion of this report (see p. 215) it will be recalled that the writer agrees with the slight majority who take a conservative stand on this question. There is no doubt, however, but that the district superintendents of New York are as a group much too inactive in the legitimate community activities of their office as defined above (p. 216) and far too uninformed and unacquainted

with the larger principles and policies of rural social organization into which their individual efforts should fit.

Judgments of Field Visitors.—Additional information on the community efforts of district superintendents to supplement the questionnaires summarized above was furnished through the confidential reports of field visitors. Sixty-one superintendents were visited in this way and observed for this purpose. These 61 reports were afterward classified on the basis of the quality of community work they represented into a good group of 11, a medium group of 13, and a poor group of 37. This entire classification is extremely subjective, it must be confessed; nevertheless it indicates the best judgment of about 40 carefully selected field investigators on the work seen and discussed.

Among typical comments quoted at random from the poor group are the following:

"He has no idea of what his proper community relations should be."

"The many duties of the superintendency prevent him from giving much time to community work."

"He is a nice old gentleman and could do a good deal if it were a part of his duties. As the State Department neither expects nor encourages anything of the kind he rests on his oars."

"This superintendent has neither vision nor program for the community phases of his work. He knows nothing apparently of rural developments in other states and has read no literature. He certainly is not a community leader at present. He lacks the enthusiasm, the energy, and the organizing ability."

"This man does not consider any form of community effort an essential part of his duties. He didn't know what the farm bureau was doing nor the Red Cross. He *thought* one of his villages had a parent-teacher association. I couldn't discover that he had read anything along this line though I may be mistaken."

"The last superintendent mentioned does not seem to have any community aims but is what I should call a manipulator."

"Does nothing. When first asked what he undertook he replied, 'Lord, nothing! How could I with everything else required of this office?' "

"I believe she would be a fair community worker for her district if more stress could be given to this work from the State Department of Education. In other words, if she had guidance I believe she would 'put over' a program."

"This superintendent absolutely neglects the community phase of his work. I would rate him as a very inefficient community leader. I cannot understand it. He has the best district in a rich county with excellent farms, intelligent American farmers, and is close to the district of Miss ——— whose work along community lines is excellent."

In contrast to this large group of reports on inefficient community service among district superintendents are eleven reports of superior work in this field. From these the following quotations are taken:

"This man is a very sane, intelligent leader—full of good purposes and accomplishing much."

"A strong community leader, active in the farm bureau, in church work and in other organizations."

"I would rate Mr. ——— as a good community worker. He was chairman of both a war chest committee and a Y.M.C.A. drive. He is prominent in the Grange, very active in his Church, and a member of the Rotary Club. His work is subtle and not showy but very good, I believe."

"This superintendent is helping the boys and girls to live the fullest sort of life in their community. He is an executive and is in touch with the best that has been written. He is secretary or treasurer of at least seven local community organizations. He has built up junior projects along at least four different lines, is to have a junior project fair and has a field day. The ball team, the church, and the fire department look to him when something needs to be done. His office is over the postoffice and when he goes home to dinner men stop him all along the way, not to talk but to ask questions. He knows the history of his county and loves it. He is the right sort of man in the right place. A candidate who came into his district looking for his job remained one day and withdrew. He is a young man."

Then follows a more extended account of what the director of this division considers the best community work reported for any district superintendent studied:

"Miss ———— believes that education means more than cramming the course of study. Her idea is to improve the community, physically and socially, and she keeps this aim very definitely in mind in all her planning. She makes use of every organization which exists, in order to obtain the results she wishes, and creates other organizations wherever necessary to accomplish the desired results.

"The Health Clubs in her schools really function, as is shown by the increased cleanliness and health of children. The percentage of children under normal weight is decreasing through the children's own efforts. The sanitary condition of schools is good, and chemical toilets which work have been installed in all buildings. Children have hot lunches at noon due to the combined efforts of superintendent and teachers. These are furnished by the parents, in turn, and the neighbors. A Tuberculosis clinic was to be held in her town the day I left. This was due to the Home Bureau, but the superintendent organized the Home Bureau. She is at present secretary of the committee which urged the clinic and obtained the nurse for the tubercular work. She is also chairman of the nursing committee of the Red Cross. I attended the clinic in a town when 45 children, from one to six years of age, from all parts of the district were brought to the village to be examined by the state director for that district and his attendant nurses. It seemed to be an efficient piece of work. This was due to the Home Bureau which the superintendent stimulated.

"There are 30 schools in her district, and in about four-fifths of these little districts there are home bureaus. Miss ————, who is in charge of these

activities is an interested, energetic worker. In the schools of this district there is 100 percent membership at present in the Junior Red Cross. The superintendent established a community rest room, raised funds for its maintenance, and secured leaders who would direct the work evenings. This room is still active and is used for various community affairs. Due to her influence, library books for children and parents are loaned to all schools in the district and this offer is taken advantage of by all her teachers. Pictures are loaned to her schools by one of her personal friends.

"She has succeeded in sending five teachers from her district to Cornell for work in the summer, one selected and paid for by the Grange, two paid for by the teachers in her district and two for whom she obtained scholarships.

"This woman is the best superintendent I have met, yet she must give up this work, due to ill health. Cannot New York State find a place where her aims, interest, ability to get people to co-operate, and energy will not be lost in this work where it is so badly needed?"

## CHAPTER XVI

# COMPARISONS AND GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

### New York Compared with Other States

AS FORMERLY stated, this special investigation on the community relations of rural schools, so far as can be ascertained, is the first study of its kind to be included in any school survey. Under these conditions there was practically no similar data available from rural teachers and superintendents in other localities against which the social efforts of New York school agents might be measured and evaluated. For this reason brief question sheets on community activities were sent to leading county superintendents throughout the United States. Inquiries were made also of all state superintendents concerning the proportion of one-teacher rural schools having parent-teacher associations or similar organizations in their respective states. In response to these requests 78 replies were received from outstanding county superintendents and 32 from state superintendents.

In the comparison of these answers from state superintendents New York takes low rank in the development of special organizations of adults giving particular attention to school affairs. Twenty of the 32 states reporting exceed New York in this respect and there is little doubt but that even a larger number would surpass her record had more states been able to furnish definite information on the inquiry. The states revealing the greatest number of rural schools assisted by such special organizations were New Jersey with 52 percent of her rural school districts so organized, Delaware with 51 percent, Maine with 40 percent, South Carolina with 30 per-

cent, Maryland with 28 percent, and Virginia with 27 percent. It is particularly significant in this connection that most of the states leading in this respect are eastern commonwealths having climatic, topographical and rural social characteristics similar to those of New York. Next in order comes a group of western states, including Oregon, with school improvement organizations of some type in 25 percent of her rural schools, Idaho with 20 percent of her schools thus served, Minnesota with 14 percent, and Kansas and Pennsylvania with 11 percent each. Against these reports the meager showing of New York with less than 2 percent of her schools so organized makes an extremely poor impression. The states reported which exceed New York in this respect are as follows:

TABLE 81.—NEW YORK COMPARED WITH OTHER STATES IN THE PERCENTAGE OF RURAL SCHOOLS HAVING ORGANIZATIONS GIVING PRIMARY ATTENTION TO SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

| State | Total number of one- and two-teacher rural schools | Number of rural schools having organizations giving primary attention to school improvement | Percentage of schools thus organized |
|---|---|---|---|
| New Jersey | 944 | 490 | 52 |
| Delaware | 310 | 160 | 51 |
| Maine | 2,500 | 1,000 | 40 |
| South Carolina | 4,000 | 1,200 | 30 |
| Maryland | 2,236 | 626 | 28 |
| Virginia | 5,592 | 1,555 | 27 |
| Oregon | 2,210 | 552 | 25 |
| Idaho | 2,400 | 480 | 20 |
| Minnesota | 8,500 | 1,200 | 14 |
| Pennsylvania | 9,300 | 1,100 | 11 |
| Kansas | 8,620 | 1,000 | 11 |
| Georgia | 5,000 | 350 | 7 |
| South Dakota | 5,184 | 259 | 5 |
| Oklahoma | 5,542 | 277 | 5 |
| Mississippi | 6,150 | 300 | 5 |
| Illinois | 10,000 | 500 | 5 |
| Kentucky | 10,000 | 300 | 3 |
| Nevada | 248 | 7 | 3 |
| North Dakota | 4,602 | 110 | 2 |
| Louisiana | 1,348 | 27 | 2 |
| New York | 10,000 | 170 | 1.7 |

| State | Schools | | Organized schools in per cent of total |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Organized | |
| New Jersey | 944 | 490 | 51.9 |
| Delaware | 310 | 160 | 51.6 |
| Maine | 2,500 | 1,000 | 40.0 |
| South Carolina | 4,000 | 1,200 | 30.0 |
| Maryland | 2,236 | 626 | 28.0 |
| Virginia | 5,592 | 1,555 | 27.8 |
| Oregon | 2,210 | 552 | 25.0 |
| Idaho | 2,400 | 480 | 20.0 |
| Minnesota | 8,500 | 1,200 | 14.1 |
| Pennsylvania | 9,300 | 1,100 | 11.8 |
| Kansas | 8,620 | 1,000 | 11.6 |
| Georgia | 5,000 | 350 | 7.0 |
| South Dakota | 5,184 | 259 | 5.0 |
| Oklahoma | 5,542 | 277 | 5.0 |
| Mississippi | 6,150 | 300 | 5.0 |
| Illinois | 10,000 | 500 | 5.0 |
| Kentucky | 10,000 | 300 | 3.0 |
| Nevada | 248 | 7 | 2.8 |
| North Dakota | 4,602 | 110 | 2.4 |
| Louisiana | 1,348 | 27 | 2.0 |
| NEW YORK | 10,000 | 170 | 1.7 |

Diagram 6.—New York compared with 21 other states in the percentage of rural schools which have special organizations giving primary attention to school improvement.

## The Community Leadership of District Superintendents as Contrasted with That of County Superintendents in Other States

From the data presented in Chapter XV it will be recalled that the typical district superintendent of New York addressed in person only 5 public meetings a year and secured speakers for but 3 others. He employed but 4 of the 10 means for rural social development

listed on the blank and claimed definite co-operation through the year with only 4 or 5 other social agencies in the county. The chief handicaps he met in this work, according to his own statement, were community indifference, lack of co-operation from teachers, bad roads, and friction and jealousy between organizations—all difficulties on which he should have made some impression for improvement, it would seem, after his average length of service in his present position. But in more than half the cases recorded he did not consider himself especially responsible for the social welfare of his district, in many instances not even for the more restricted and obvious community relations of his schools. Often he seemed willing to shift this task to farm and home agents, grange leaders, church workers, or even to his rural teachers. In practically no cases did he show a clear grasp of the fundamental principles of rural social organization and of the proper relationship of the public schools and his own office to a comprehensive program for rural community betterment. He was, upon the whole, moreover, but slightly acquainted with the recent literature dealing with this phase of his problem, and seldom in personal touch with the best leaders in this field, even in his own state. There are, of course, a few striking exceptions to this general picture among the 207 officers of this kind in the state, but this is believed to be a fair statement of the median type as far as community interests and attitudes are concerned.

In contrast to this presentation of the community activities of the typical district superintendent in New York the data gathered from 78 leading county superintendents in the country are illuminating. To make this comparison as fair as possible reports were secured from practically every county superintendent in two states, New Jersey and Maryland, so that general averages for at least two similar groups of supervisors might be obtained. The other replies came from a miscellaneous group of outstanding county superintendents selected at random throughout the United States.

The accompanying table and graphs show the results of these comparisons. The striking fact from this table is that the district superintendents of New York rank far below all three of the other groups studied in every respect save one minor item involving the use of circular letters, in which New York surpasses Maryland.

New Jersey, as already noted, has 52 percent of her one- and two-teacher rural schools supported by parent-teacher associations or similar organizations, Maryland 28 percent, and the other selected counties 25 percent, but New York only one and seven-tenths percent. This poor record in special organizations for reaching the public with school interests might be condoned, however, if it

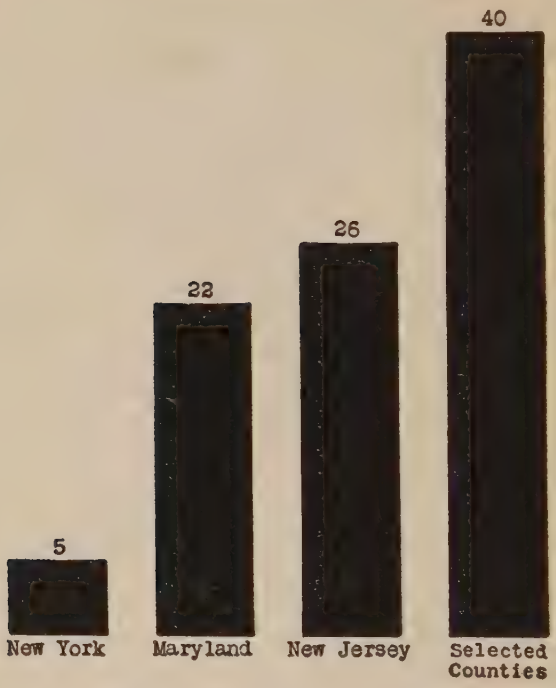



Diagram 7.—Number of public gatherings addressed annually by district superintendents in New York as compared with the number addressed by county superintendents in Maryland, New Jersey, and selected counties in other states.

could be shown that school welfare was being advanced through other organizations. But with the district superintendents of the state addressing an average of but 5 community meetings a year as against an average for county superintendents (with larger territory and more teachers) of 26 in New Jersey, 22 in Maryland,

and 40 in the leading counties selected, this subterfuge breaks down, also, and it must be frankly confessed, so far as the conclusions of this study indicate, that the district superintendents and rural teachers of New York simply are not reaching the people with school propaganda nor enlisting their adequate co-operation in the advancement of education. This accounts, without doubt, for much of the general conservatism so often charged against farmers on school matters and for some of the bitter opposition recently aroused against certain educational reforms.

TABLE 82.—THE COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES OF DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENTS IN NEW YORK AS CONTRASTED WITH THOSE OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS IN OTHER STATES

| | Percentage of schools having parent-teacher associations or similar organizations | Average number of public gatherings addressed per superintendent | Means for community development employed | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Newspapers | Reports | County school paper | Circular letters | Community conferences | Field days | Children's clubs | Other means |
| | Percent | | Percent | Percent | Percent | Percent | Percent | | | Percent |
| New Jersey.. | 52 | 26 | 100 | 61 | 22 | 100 | 61 | 100 | 55 | 77 |
| Maryland... | 28 | 22 | 100 | 82 | 11 | 76 | 46 | 100 | 59 | 100 |
| Selected Counties.. | 25 | 40 | 88 | 51 | 20 | 93 | 70 | 76 | 65 | 66 |
| New York... | 1.7 | 5 | 80 | 22 | 6 | 81 | 41 | 70 | 32 | 26 |

## GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

From the data of this study it is evident that when measured in terms of realizable ideals the community relations of New York rural schools are far from satisfactory. With entire states showing from 25 to 52 percent of their rural communities organized for school assistance the one and seven-tenths percent record of New York rural districts as revealed here is lamentably low. So, too, is the educational and community leadership of the average district superintendent as compared with the activity of the 78 county superintendents studied.

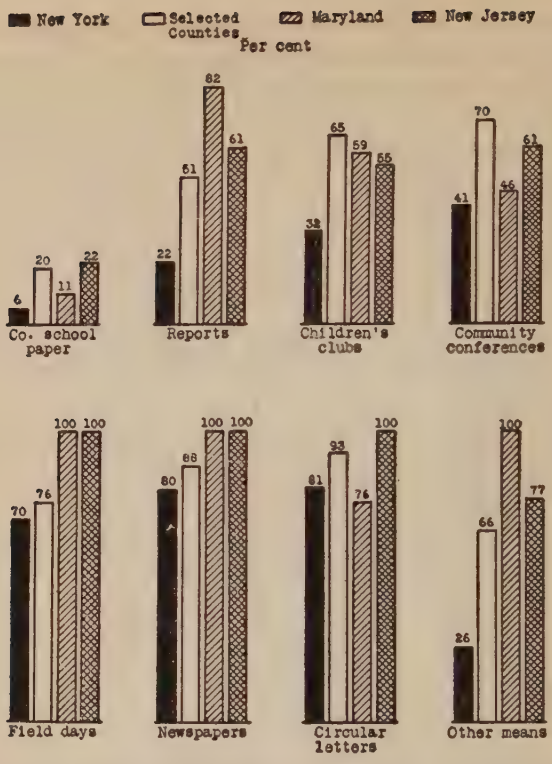



Diagram 8.—District superintendents of New York compared with county superintendents of other states in their use of various means for school and community development.

The best that can be said on the community relations of rural schools in New York is that there has been but little tendency here toward exploiting the rural elementary school for adult and vocational ends. This in itself is highly commendable. But an alternative danger, almost equally serious, lies in tolerating a general inertia on the part of school forces which keeps them not only from infringing upon the territory of other agencies but from fulfilling their own obligations. This fault New York seems to possess to a high degree. The rural school forces of the state, in other words, are conducting only a tithe of the legitimate community activities

which they should foster, and must undertake, if the commonwealth is ever to realize its great educational possibilities.

For all this, in the judgment of the writer, there are three fundamental causes. The first of these is the overburdening of the office of the district superintendent which, providing for neither clerical help nor a differentiation of administrative and supervisory duties, is hopelessly handicapped. In New Jersey and Delaware, the two states ranking first in school community organization, for example, rural school work is specialized into its supervisory and administrative functions and two types of agents, county superintendents and rural school supervisors, are employed to discharge the duties undertaken in New York by one individual. To be sure the supervisory units are larger in the states named, but this specialization into instructional and administrative responsibilities is nevertheless a great advantage, and seems to be the only arrangement by which either phase of the intricate and varied problem of rural school control can ever be adequately met. Of course the state of Maine with a similar organization seems to have found a way of meeting both responsibilities more fully than New York, but the units are smaller here and each union superintendent has fewer teachers to direct. Be this as it may there is no question but that the district superintendents of New York are at present an over-burdened group, and that efficient results in neither technical supervision nor community relations can be reasonably expected of them until they are relieved of some of the numerous responsibilities of their office either through the provision of additional assistance or the re-organization of the unit under which they are working.

A second cause for the conditions cited seems to arise from the fact that the district superintendent has but little local responsibility and is not responsible to a natural social unit which thinks as a unit. Neither the county nor the natural rural community as defined above (p. 217) enters into the determination of the supervisory district for rural schools in New York. These areas were defined for the most part in an arbitrary way some years ago and but little has been done in re-casting them since. This, together with the employment of district superintendents by an unrelated

board carrying no other functions or responsibilities, tends still further to remove the office from the immediate interests of the people and to militate against the best development of close community relations.

The third and most potent cause for the frequent inefficiency and inertia of New York superintendents in community activities is to be found in the general neglect of this phase of educational administration by the State Department of Education with the accompanying lack of assistance in these matters to district superintendents. The state office as the fountain head of educational direction in the state must in the last analysis accept the brunt of responsibility for any shortcomings revealed. "Where there is no vision the people perish" and when the state officials, who should be the most fully trained, directly responsible, best paid, and highly specialized, of any educational group in a state cannot furnish the inspiration for this work results are sad, indeed. In the present instance, however, there are extenuating circumstances. The first of these is that New York is so large and has such a tremendous population and school enrolment that with all the help employed on its large state staff no one has opportunity to devote sufficient time to this problem. Moreover, no one has been designated to this task. The great need here as in most states is for a specialist or group of specialists giving full time to this work similar to the plans now developing in North Carolina, South Carolina and Virginia.[1] It is with this conviction in mind that emphasis is placed below upon the employment of a special Assistant Commissioner of Rural Education into whose care the general direction of this whole problem might be entrusted.

In addition to what has been said on this matter of educational spirit one further conclusion seems warranted from the findings of this study. The rural schools and teachers of New York, as indicated elsewhere in the survey, undoubtedly show good standards in certain respects, including especially the length of term, salary, training and tenure of teachers, and the acquisition of formal subject matter. But with all this the real spirit of teaching—of eager,

[1] See Appendix D for information on school community service in these states.

constructive, public-serving education—seems peculiarly lacking. This is shown repeatedly in other phases of the survey, as in the woodenness and formality of the class instruction observed in both high schools and elementary schools, in the curriculum and practice teaching of training classes, and in the dead-level mechanical nature of much of the supervision seen. Whether this is more true of New York state schools than of others is, of course, an open question. Nevertheless every fair-minded observer must agree that there is here, at least, too much of a tendency for living up only to the letter of the law and doing only what is "nominated in the bond." Community activities, being for the most part spontaneous and voluntary, show this tendency to a marked degree and serve excellently as a general test of the real spirit and interest of the state's educational agents. Measured by these standards it appears that New York rural teachers, principals and superintendents leave much to be desired.

## CHAPTER XVII

# RECOMMENDATIONS ON THE COMMUNITY RELATIONS OF RURAL SCHOOLS

IN THE light of the findings given above the following recommendations on the community relations of rural schools are hereby submitted:

1. That in every rural district of the state there be developed a live interest among adults for the advancement of education. This interest may either take the form of a separate organization for school betterment as parent-teacher associations and school improvement leagues, or be focused in the work of a special education committee under some organization not exclusively educational. Ideally the non-educational organization thus employed should be a community council of social agencies in the case of the village or natural community center, and an all-purpose neighborhood club in the case of the one-teacher rural school district. Very frequently, however, it will prove best to accomplish this end by securing the development of an effective committee on education in the grange, farm bureau, home bureau, women's club, business men's association, or any other organization already well established and dominant in the local community or neighborhood.

This interest of the community or neighborhood in the education of its children will furnish a general motive for co-operation, it should be noted in passing, and thus enable the school to serve as a dynamic force for the socialization of adults without neglecting its primary obligations to children and youth.

In developing this educational interest among local communities state assistance will be necessary. For this reason it is further recommended:

2. That the office of the new Assistant Commissioner of Rural Education, as advised elsewhere in this report, be authorized among other functions to assume general responsibility for the stimulation and direction of community activities in rural schools, employing special agents for this purpose, and that a vigorous effort be conducted throughout the state for advancing the welfare of children and attracting the attention of citizens to school needs.

3. That the New York state staff in charge of Junior projects be commended for the efficiency of their work and especially cited for their policy of developing this movement through the public schools. Because of the unusual value of these projects, both in modernizing the curriculum and in socializing the youth of the state, it is further recommended that adequate financial support be extended to this work as long as it maintains or surpasses its present standards of efficiency.

4. That curriculums for the preparation of rural teachers in normal schools and training classes be revised to include courses and practical instruction on country life and the community relations of schools; and that a special committee of instructors in such classes and institutions be appointed by the Assistant Commissioner of Rural Education to serve with others of expert training in formulating the course and topics to be thus taught.

5. That a reasonable amount of properly directed community effort in harmony with the principles of this study be expected of every rural teacher in the state, and that this requirement be included in all score cards for the rating of teachers, and considered as one factor in the determination of salary schedules.

Specifically reviewed these community activities for the teacher of the one-teacher rural school should include:

(a) The local leadership or oversight of boys' and girls' clubs.

(b) The development of a general neighborhood club with a strong education committee, or of a parent-teacher association, or of an effective school-welfare interest on the part of some rural organization already functioning in the district or neighborhood.

(c) Personal co-operation with the church, grange, farm and home bureau, and all other agencies for adults in such of their activities as are educative to children of the rural elementary school.

(d) Assistance toward the establishment of other community activities or agencies needed in the neighborhood for the welfare of children, as the employment of a school nurse, physical training director, etc.

(e) The supplying of information for putting adults of the neighborhood in touch with public and private agencies designed to advance their general welfare. This merely means knowing where to write to state and national sources for help on agriculture, home improvement, health, road making, etc.

(f) Encouraging the use of the school building when the people so choose and under the restrictions formerly stated (p. 214) as a general community center or common meeting place for other agencies.

(g) Such education and socialization of adults as may come as a by-product in getting adults of the neighborhood to meet the obligations specified above and make adequate provision for the education of their children.

6. That educational publicity and the community relations of schools be given prominent consideration in all short courses, special conferences, state supervision, and other activities fostered by the Assistant Commissioner of Rural Education or the Department at Albany for the benefit of district superintendents. Also that district superintendents be further assisted in the community activities of their schools through the provision of adequate clerical help and by the publication from the office of the Assistant Commissioner of Rural Education of a monthly bulletin on school needs designed to furnish much of the data and suggestion necessary for the successful prosecution of this work.

7. In conclusion, it is further recommended that the community relations of rural and village high schools, including provisions for adult education, be especially emphasized. An aggressive policy in this direction will do much, it is believed, to promote the acceptance of the community school district recommended elsewhere in this report and to provide adequate high school privileges for all rural children of the state.

These community activities for high schools serving rural areas may well include extension work and short courses for farmers and

farm women; social activities, as community dinners, suppers, and parties; cultural gatherings, as lecture courses, musical programs, and art exhibits; athletic exercises, as special games, field days, and play festivals; health projects, as medical examinations, first-aid demonstrations, and dental clinics; and under special conditions Church and Sunday School service, and even economic assistance as the development of co-operative associations and the improvement of roads.

To make this extended program possible to the small high school additional teachers must be employed and increased state aid provided for this purpose.

In promoting this end it is also advised that the principals of all consolidated and rural high schools be especially endorsed by the state and that such endorsement be withheld until the applicant has first pursued special instruction on the community relations of rural high schools at some institution approved for this purpose by the state authorities having this work in charge.

# APPENDIX

## SUGGESTIVE ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES AND RELATIONS OF RURAL SCHOOLS AND SCHOOL AGENTS

THE purpose of this Appendix is to afford concrete illustrations of some of the principles and standards discussed in more general terms in the preceding report. It should not be inferred, however, that all activities mentioned in these accounts are regarded as legitimate community efforts of rural schools and school agents. The aim here has been rather to select the best illustrations of these principles which it has been possible to find both within and outside New York state and to present their development as accurately and concisely as possible. For convenience and clarity the examples used are classified under the educational units they represent; that is as showing community activities for (a) the one-teacher rural school, (b) the rural high school, (c) the district or county superintendent's office and (d) the state department of education.

## APPENDIX A

## ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL ILLUSTRATIONS

### I. COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES OF THE HOPSON RURAL SCHOOL NEAR DOLGEVILLE, NEW YORK

Social progress in the Hopson rural school district two miles from Dolgeville, New York, is due chiefly to the leadership of Mr. Edwin S. Hopson, a young college graduate who lives in the locality and has served as school trustee for the past four years.

The whole story of improvement in this neighborhood started about three years ago when the State Department of Education condemned the miserable, dilapidated, old school building which the district had been tolerating altogether too long. As often happens, the first reaction of the people in this matter was to resent the decision and authority of the state in protecting their children. Second thought, coupled with the wise approval of Mr. Hopson, soon led them to realize the questionableness of their attitude, however, and it was not long before the whole community was thoroughly aroused and actively co-operative

Fig. 3.—Prize Winners at the Gaines Field Day, Second Supervisory District, Orleans County, New York.

Field Days are among the most common community activities of District Superintendents in New York. For a brief account of the above illustration see the Appendix, Section C, report No. 1.

Fig. 4.—Folk Dancing by Rural School Children of the Second Supervisory District, Montgomery County, New York.

For a summary of the community activities of rural schools in this Supervisory District see the Appendix, Section C, report No. 4.

in constructing the new building. Some hauled sand and lumber, others assisted in excavating, while several more skilled profferred their services as carpenters and cement-workers. As a result the neighborhood shortly possessed one of the finest rural school buildings in the state, with a library, work room, play apparatus, nicely planted grounds, sanitary toilets, and other modern conveniences and attractions. Meanwhile the people had made a far greater gain than any building, however attractive, could represent in that they had learned to work together for the benefit of their children and the common good. From this time on the whole development of the neighborhood has been natural and comparatively easy. In May, 1921, when the writer visited this school in person she was given the following summary of the social activities of the district:

In January, 1920, Miss Mary G. McCormick, Nutrition Specialist of the State Department of Education, visited the community and spoke on school lunches. Following this the teacher held a school entertainment in May which was well attended and from the proceeds of which an oil stove was purchased. The school then joined with others in putting on a township play day in June and school closed for the summer.

In September of the same year, soon after the opening of school, a big clam bake was held at which the men of the district did all the work. An orchestra from Dolgeville furnished music for this occasion and not only added greatly to the enjoyment of the day but helped to interest townspeople in the school and to bring country and village closer together. In October an exhibit of project work was held and the county leader from Utica made a talk on club work for children. A beefsteak supper was furnished, also, with the men serving again, and a community song leader from Middleville gave his services free to the meeting and led the group in singing. The following month a meeting for men only was held under the auspices of the Y.M.C.A. at which a lecture on social hygiene was given and a frankfurter supper was served.

At Christmas time a community Christmas tree was celebrated at the school house with a program of suitable selections by the children. Gifts for all present were distributed from this tree and sent to those absent or sick. In January, 1921, a special meeting for women was held and refreshments were served. Owing to bad weather the regular monthly meeting was omitted in February, but in March a joint meeting of both men and women was again convened and state and county speakers representing the Farm and Home Bureaus were present to outline extension plans and activities for the year. In April a woman extension worker from Cornell spoke on health in the home and in May the women had another special meeting under the auspices of the Home Bureau. The school year then closed in June with the most ambitious effort of all—the preparation and production of two home-talent plays, Zona Gale's *Neighbors* and a simple humorous sketch known as *Nox and Cox*.

Meanwhile an energetic Parent-Teacher Association had been developing throughout these two years and conducting a program of school improvement

all its own. Among other activities this program included the enrichment of the school curriculum through the introduction of project gardens, school sewing, hot lunches and nature study; and the improvement of school equipment through the purchase of new library books, several pictures, an organ, a drinking fountain, and a hot lunch outfit.

Later developments in this school neighborhood and still further proof of the exceptional leadership of the young college man who has chosen to devote his energies to its upbuilding are to be found in the following additional notes quoted from a letter by Mr. Hopson and from local newspaper clippings.

When you visited our school in May I promised to keep you posted on community work this summer.

On Flag day we dedicated a new flag staff given by our clerk, Mr. Daly. We held a community meeting at 7:30 p.m. and a squad from the Dolgeville American Legion Post participated in the raising which was held promptly in deference to flag etiquette. While the flag was aloft the assemblage sang "The Star Spangled Banner" after which the impressive ceremony of retreat was given. Supt. Coffee of the Dolgeville Schools gave an inspiring patriotic address and the children recited and sang suitable songs. We had some spirited community singing, also. Altogether I believe the flag pole will mean much more to the children than if erected as part of the building program.

We repeated our plays twice in neighboring towns and added altogether about $75 to the treasury of the Home and School Association. We could have made more but the folks got tired of it and we thought it best not to overwork that feature.

During July and the farm rush we held no community meetings, though the Home Bureau had successful meetings each month.

In August we had another clam bake at the old cheese factory opposite the old school house. I enclose newspaper clippings. In spite of our effort to figure the plates close to cost we had a surplus which added about $10.00 to the treasury.

Last week we held another exhibit of Junior Project Work. Aside from the enclosed newspaper account this needs no comment save to say that another year we shall try to enlarge it into a community fair at which the grown-ups may show their farm, garden and home successes.

We now have a definite plan for the landscape improvement of our school grounds designed by the State College of Forestry, and next time you visit us we hope to look much better.

I forgot to add that our example is "catching." On October 8 this Home Bureau branch is to hold a field day at our school house at which several neighboring branches are invited. There will be a Cornell speaker and several others of prominence. The men are invited, too.

Sincerely yours,

EDWIN S. HOPSON.

*School Exhibit in Hopson District*

That fine, model rural school house in the Hopson district of the town of Salisbury, a short distance northeast of Dolgeville, was the scene last evening of another one of those delightful community gatherings for which that neighborhood has become noted. The occasion this time was the annual exhibit showing what the pupils of the school have done in the way of junior project work. There were also a number of enjoyable musical features, while several

inspiring addresses were given, especially in relation to rural club and junior project work. The school house was completely filled for the happy occasion, practically all the families of the district being represented, in addition to which there were a number of outside visitors. Refreshments were served, including watermelons grown by school boys of the district, and a cake made by a 10-year-old school girl.

A brief social period was enjoyed, after which the occasion came to a close, all too quickly. It was a wholesome hospitable gathering, in which the spirit of neighborly good will and harmonious co-operation for the welfare of all prevailed to a marked degree, and illustrative of the new spirit of unity and progress which has swept over the best rural communities of today.—*The Little Falls Evening Times*, September 29, 1921.

*Hopson School Doll Exhibit*

Several weeks ago the teacher and scholars of the Hopson school district began to talk about a "Doll Fair." The talk was soon put into action and every girl and boy of the district became intensely interested in dolls. Soon dolls representing every race on the face of the earth began assembling in the school and to the surprise of all, fathers and mothers of the neighborhood began making dolls also. The climax came last Wednesday evening, when the dolls were put on exhibition. At 5.30 people from far and near began gathering at the school, where a beefsteak supper was prepared and served by the young men of the district. After the supper the Fusco brothers of Dolgeville gave several orchestral selections, following which the sale of the dolls began. The dolls sold very rapidly and the proceeds of the evening netted $64.30.—*The Little Falls Evening Times*, December 9, 1921.

## II. NEIGHBORHOOD EFFORTS OF A BEGINNING RURAL TEACHER

It is commonly contended that the typical rural teacher, especially the inexperienced and unprepared teacher, can do little in community work. Yet all over the country even immature and untrained teachers are revealing possibilities for leadership of this kind which have never been fully appreciated or developed by the average supervisor. The following account illustrates this point most happily and furnishes a good example of the usual community activities undertaken by such rural teachers of New York as are at all active in this field. For more extensive and scientific developments of the neighborhood efforts of rural teachers the reader is cited to the work of Mrs. Marie Turner Harvey of the Porter Rural School at Kirksville, Missouri, as reported by Miss Evelyn Dewey in *New Schools for Old* (E. P. Dutton Company, New York), and to the prize-winning accounts of the Scholarship Contest conducted by the American Country Life Association and published in the *Journal of Rural Education* for September, October and December, 1922. (Published at 525 West 120th Street, New York City.)

*Happenings at the Little Red Schoolhouse*

This story begins when teachers were so scarce that even high school graduates were allowed to teach in rural schools. I was one of these teachers. As I have taught only the last two years I have not had time to carry out many plans for

bettering rural conditions in my district. Then, too, the first year I had to study and pass nine subjects in order to earn my rural school "renewable" so that I might teach at all. I liked the work so well, however, that my district superintendent advised me to take a course at some normal school and I have saved enough money to carry me through at least one year so this fall I shall start in.

I shall never forget that first day of school. There were only twelve pupils but all elementary grades were represented, with one girl having two high-school subjects. What was I to do? I had had no experience in teaching and had not been in a country school since I attended one for the last time in 1911. I found an old daily program and by asking the children I guessed how the school should be run. I then bought a good book on school management and another on methods and worked out plans to best of my ability.

. . . . . .

To bring the school and community life closer together I formed clubs for the children. The first of these was the Health Club. Our physical director gave us a plan at teachers' meeting so that all schools taking it would have the same work and the Department of Education could give each child a health certificate. To earn this the child must perform six hundred health chores during a thirty-six weeks' school year. Of the fifteen pupils I had in June ten earned certificates.

Beside the chores each child was weighed every month. I took them during the noon hour to one of the farmers who had scales and weighed them myself. I then posted the weights on a bulletin which was left up both years. The parents said there was a great improvement in the children's health. One girl ten years old weighed only forty-eight pounds when we started the work. During the first year she gained twenty pounds but had whooping cough during the summer and lost it again. I was worried about her when she entered school last fall, as she weighed only fifty pounds. I asked the health officer what he thought about her, and he was worried too. So I stayed over night with her and had a good talk with her mother. I urged her to have the child drink more milk and eat more eggs and butter. We had a milk-drinking contest at school and this child weighed seventy-one pounds when school closed, though in the meantime she had had the measles.

We had a Reading Club also. Those who enrolled had to read at least five books suitable for their grade. Even the second graders joined. Each child had a record book and in his own handwriting inscribed the title of the book, its author, and the year and grade when read. They won different colored stars for a certain number of books read. A third and a fifth grade girl read thirty-three books each. Others read as many as twenty-six. The whole school read one hundred eighty-three books against thirty the year before. Last year we had only the old library while this year I sent for a traveling library. The trustee had me renew it for another year. I hope the next teacher will take an interest in their reading. I tried to teach them that if they would read good books the whole world of knowledge and enjoyment would be open to them.

As I didn't feel competent to organize a Parent-Teachers' Association, I visited each family separately and in this way became acquainted with the home life of each child under my care.

At Christmas time the children gave an entertainment for their parents and friends. We had a tree and there was a gift for every child present. I knew how many little brothers and sisters each child had and got something for them also. The mothers said the entertainments were even better than those given at the churches. If it had not been for the epidemics we should have given entertainments and raised money to buy a victrola for the school and a showcase for the specimens which the pupils found.

The first year Junior Project work was organized in this county only two

parents would allow their children to take up the work, but this last year eight have joined. I told the boys that if they would take the poultry project I would also and we'd see who could raise the best chicks. We had get-together meetings twice a month during the school year. During vacation we had meetings at my home. We worked for an hour and then had a play-hour, after which refreshments were served. Late in the fall the children exhibited their work at the Grange Hall or some other place named by the County Junior Extension leader.

The pupils earned a fine framed picture for the school by obtaining subscriptions for a magazine called "The Farmer's Wife." They chose "Making the Flag." They felt very proud of this picture and as it came just in time for the annual school meeting the people saw it and were pleased also.

At this last meeting there were eight women and twelve men who came to vote for or against improvements that had been talked over during the year. The outcome was as follows: First, as the children had taken such an interest in reading they voted to buy new books for the library. Next, the woodshed was to be shingled. Some wanted it fixed so that the children could play there when it stormed. The trustee was to do as he saw fit. Last year the trustee didn't order the maps and globe until so late that we had them to use for only a month before school closed. The district didn't like this so put in a new trustee this year. A new pump was ordered put in so the children wouldn't have to carry water so far. Some wanted chemical toilets put in, but they decided to wait as these would cost a good deal at the present time. Then, too, they might be able to get water as the city water line runs through just below the schoolhouse.

On the last day of school each year I gave the pupils an automobile trip of from fifty to sixty miles to some interesting place. The first year we went through our state Capitol building and the educational museum. While eating our picnic lunch near the park two aeroplanes passed over us. These were the first the children had ever seen. After lunch we went for a long ride, reaching home again at six o'clock. This past year we intended to visit a historical city, but found the roads impassable, and contented ourselves with a picnic ride only. The children said they would rather have the auto rides than the sleigh rides of former years.

I should like to see the following plans worked out in country schools and I'll try to bring them about after I've finished my normal course. We must keep more of the country children on farms as the cities are oversupplied with workers now. To do this we must give them more of the advantages of the city and make it worthwhile to live in the country. They must have better trained teachers and those who understand rural conditions. Why not help more of the country boys and girls to become rural teachers themselves? When the people heard that I was going to normal they said, "You will never teach in rural schools again for we cannot pay the salary city schools will give you. But we need teachers who will take the interest you have taken in our children during the last two years. If we increase your salary won't you teach them another year?" In reply I told them that I never wished to teach in city schools as I had lived nearly all my life in the country and wanted to help rural children get a better education; also to teach them to love the country better than the city. Money is not everything, although it is a great help sometimes.

My first plan will be to give to the boy or girl having the best class work during the eighth grade and passing the highest in the Regents' elementary examinations a scholarship of one hundred dollars. This examination will entitle the child to a preliminary certificate allowing him to enter any high school in the state. To compete for the prize the pupil must be a farmer's child and must use the money for a two-year-course in some high school. Another plan will be

to get the district to consent to have the schoolhouse used as a reading room once or twice a week. I shall not only have good books in the library, but have some farm papers and other periodicals for the public to use for study and pleasure. As very few of the farmers have their milk tested around here, I'll try to get the older pupils interested in testing milk with a Babcock tester once or twice a month. This will show the farmers which cows are paying their way. My father has a tester which he will lend me until we can earn one for the school. There are many other plans in my mind, but space will not permit me to write of them.—MILDRED H. MORSE, District 5, Rensselaer County, Troy, New York.

# APPENDIX B

## RURAL HIGH SCHOOL ILLUSTRATIONS

### I. THE FERGUS COUNTY HIGH SCHOOL AT LEWISTOWN, MONTANA

PROBABLY no better illustration of the community service of a rural high school can be found in the entire United States than that afforded by the Fergus County High School in Lewistown, Montana. This institution is the chief high school center for a county almost as large as the state of Connecticut. Located in a pioneer environment where other social agencies are not yet adequately developed the school here naturally serves a wide variety of community interests. Among all these, however, it first discharges its primary function of furnishing a good secondary education to the youth of the county. Over 800 children are enrolled in its courses and a faculty of 36 teachers is employed. More than half of this student body comes from the country and large dormitories for both boys and girls have been provided to care for non-resident pupils.

The outstanding features of the Fergus County High School are (1) the vital adaptation of its curriculum to life needs and (2) its generous and effective community service. Ten courses of study are offered, including the classical, scientific, agricultural, stenographic, accounting, normal training, music, and gas engine, auto and tractor course. Extensive buildings and shop and laboratory facilities are provided for the proper development of all these courses and the work throughout is kept remarkably close to the needs and activities of everyday life in the country, being fully accredited also for college entrance requirements by both the North Central and the Northwestern Associations of Colleges and Universities.

But this school does far more than merely to provide well for those who come to its doors. It goes out and combs the countryside in every direction searching for children who should be in high school, and converts them and their parents to the value of its offerings. From twenty-five to thirty circular letters a year, emphasizing the value of a high school education, and revealing the attractions of the various courses and departments at Lewistown are sent regularly to the eighth grade pupils of the county. With this a never-ceasing campaign on the value and necessity of education in the present generation is conducted constantly among the parents. A special Winter Course of nineteen weeks running from November to March is offered, also, for young people of high school age

who must work during the farming season. In harmony with the democratic motives just illustrated everything possible is done to reduce the living expenses of students so that those of slender means may not be denied the privileges of an education. All dormitories and boarding houses are operated as economically as possible and an average of over one hundred students a year work their way entirely through the course.

The social and community activities of the school at Lewistown are numerous and varied. These fall naturally into two groups—those designed for the welfare of students and those planned for the assistance of adults. The student organizations and activities include a bi-weekly paper, an orchestra, chorus and glee clubs, literary and dramatic societies, a strong athletic association, a Normal club, a discussion club, and the usual class activities. Music is much emphasized, full credit being given for the study of both violin and piano.

A specially unique service of the student body to the community is rendered through the system of surveys developed. These surveys are made by the high school pupils under the direction of instructors and include studies on roads, health, home economics, soil, beef, poultry, wheat and other topics. Information thus gathered is used as a basis for the planning of community improvement programs and even more particularly by the teachers as a guide for adapting the content and instruction of their courses to the needs of the county.

Community activities for adults in the Fergus County High School include lectures and entertainments from the high school center to local communities, the assistance of high school instructors in organizing professional clubs among farmers and their wives, the conduct of a Mid-Winter Farmers' Week with an average attendance of 1,000 persons, and the offering of a number of brief extension courses in various farm and home subjects. In addition to the general community activities fostered by the school as a whole each department develops its own special services to adults. These departmental efforts and other services of the school to the community are described as follows in a recent report issued by the Principal:

For the past three years each department, wherever possible, has been steadily pushing its activities out into the county. The agricultural department has tested hundreds of samples of seeds for purity and germination, has tested milk, analyzed soils, and assisted the County Agent in gopher campaigns and other activities. The agricultural instructor is also the County Leader for boys' and girls' clubs. The biology department has helped in the identification of weeds and in weed campaigns. The home economics department has assisted the County Agent, helped with the club work, and rendered aid to the rural schools through the County Superintendent's office. It assisted also in Red Cross work and other war activities wherever opportunity was given. The English and History departments have furnished suggestions and materials for community programs and plays to nearly 150 rural teachers and communities in the past two years. A public information bureau has also been established by these departments where outside persons and communities may secure information and materials for a study of current topics. Traveling libraries have been sent out to rural schools and distributed to the people of the rural communities. The equivalent of over 3,000 volumes was distributed in this way during

the past year. The chemistry and physics departments have analyzed water and minerals. The manual arts department has made an excellent collection of plans for farm buildings, and has planned and made estimates for farmers for different farm structures. It has devised home conveniences and labor saving devices that are now in use in many homes in the county. During the past year over 175 farmers have been given advice and assistance in automobile, gas engine and tractor difficulties. The music department co-operated with the County Superintendent in establishing circuits for music supervisors in the smaller towns and rural districts of the county, and has assisted with community singing programs. The business department in the past three years has put out nearly 500,000 letters for private and community service organizations. The entire school has co-operated with the County Superintendent in rendering aid to rural schools, assisting with the meetings of the Fergus County Trustees' Association, and in helping with athletic contests.

To meet the needs of the boys on the farms more thoroughly a winter course was started two years ago. It runs from November 1 to March 15, and the equivalent of one-half year of regular high school work is done. This course is of a practical nature and relates mostly to the activities of farm life. Over fifty boys took advantage of this work the past year. A six weeks' course in gas engine, automobile and tractors is offered to men during the winter. Over thirty applications from men from different parts of the county for the course this coming winter are now on file. It is planned this coming year to offer a six weeks' course for women in dressmaking, home nursing, and applied art. An opportunity will also be given these women to make home conveniences and labor saving devices in the shop.

For the past three years, in co-operation with the County Agents, the Farm Bureau, and the State College of Agriculture, a Farmers' Week has been held. Each year the enrollment has steadily increased until last year a total of 850 men and women were present.

In co-operation with the County Superintendents of Fergus, Chouteau, Wheatland, and Meagher Counties, a six weeks' summer school for teachers and other students has also been held. This summer approximately 350 teachers and students under the supervision of 20 instructors, in addition to outside lecturers, will be in attendance. If, to the regular enrollment of the school here, there be added those who receive instructions during Farmers' Week and Summer School, the total will crowd the two thousand mark. The administration and the entire faculty believe that the institution should stand for the education of the people regardless of age. Consequently adults are admitted to any class in any subject, provided they are able to carry the work satisfactorily.

The administration and the entire County High School faculty believe that a school building, in order to return the greatest dividends to the people, should be idle as little as possible. Accordingly the County High School has been kept open practically the year around. During the past year from November 1 to March 15, with the exception of the period of the influenza scare, the gymnasium was in almost constant use for athletics and other purposes from eight in the morning until ten at night. During the period of the war all the faculty members assisted in Liberty Loan Drives, War Saving Stamp Campaigns, and in other activities whenever an opportunity was given. The student body alone bought $10,000 worth of War Saving Stamps. Members of the faculty have taken part in 316 community meetings outside of Lewistown during the past three years.

Fergus County High School was selected by the Federal Inspector of the Smith-Hughes Act as the best school in his territory, which embraces eleven states, to cite as an example of the way a high school may serve the needs of a community.

Culminating all these efforts the Fergus County High School has recently undertaken to stimulate general social progress in the local communities of its territory. Toward this end Community Welfare Leagues are being organized in the various local centers of the district and these local organizations have since been federated into a county-wide movement known as the Fergus County Community Service League. Under this League and with the assistance of the faculty a general County Conference is held each year at the high school. At this conference thoughtful attention is given to the needs of the county, improvements are agreed upon, and definite programs of action are planned for realizing these improvements. Briefly characterized these meetings are great rejuvenating pinnacles of inspiration and endeavor through which the whole county renews its faith and catches a vision of the larger possibilities and opportunities yet before it.

Thus does the Fergus County High School, a single institution in a vast pioneer country, guide the affairs of its public and make life richer and deeper for both the youth and adults of its district. But here as elsewhere "the institution is but the lengthened shadow of one man" and in this case the man is F. L. Cummings, who has been principal of the school from the beginning and to whom its remarkable growth and service should be chiefly accredited. Only when our rural and village high schools are filled with men and women of this type—and not until then—can country children come into their own educationally.

## II. RURAL COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES IN TYPICAL STATE-AIDED HIGH SCHOOLS OF MINNESOTA

Minnesota taking the state as a whole has many of the best and most rural-minded high schools of any commonwealth in the union. Some of these are consolidated schools in open-country environments, but the majority are located in small towns and hamlets of from 500 to 3,000 people. All reveal an exceptionally high percentage of rural school attendance. This enlistment of rural pupils is due to the effective adaptation of courses and activities to rural needs as made possible through a generous system of state aid. Each such typical rural high school with an enrollment of approximately 150 pupils maintains the following departments and draws the following amounts of state aid:

| | |
|---|---|
| Agricultural department | $1,000 |
| Home economics department | 600 |
| Manual training and trades department | 600 |
| Commercial department | 600 |
| Normal training department | 1,600 |
| Flat aid to school for maintaining standard high school rank | 2,500 |
| Aid for "associated schools," $200 per rural school, often totaling | 1,000 |
| Apportionment—about $8 per child for 150 pupils | 1,200 |
| Tuition for non-resident pupils as paid by the state | 500 |
| Total aid to one high school | $9,600 |

As illustrations of the typical rural high school in Minnesota, Hector, Wheaton, and Deer River may be cited. Hector is a town of 850 people with a high school enrollment of 143 pupils, fully half of whom come from farms and outlying hamlets. This high school draws an annual state aid averaging $10,000 and has all the departments named above. Among its special features are a three-months' winter short-course for young men and women out of school, an annual farmers' institute for older men and women, an orchestra and glee club, a dramatic club and two literary societies, a Country Life Club, a forge room, a greenhouse, special laboratories for physics, chemistry, and agriculture, an auditorium and gymnasium, a ten-acre farm, a school nurse, and a special rural supervisor to look after the affiliated or "associated" schools.

Wheaton is a town of about two thousand. Its high school is similar to that of Hector except that it has a newer, more elaborate and better building. This building is in every sense a real community center for the educational, agricultural, recreational, health and social activities of not the village alone but the whole countryside. It provides quarters for all regular school activities and for the local Farm Bureau, Red Cross, public library, and community nurse as well. There is also an attractive rest room for farmers' wives, a well-equipped gymnasium, and a good auditorium with a motion-picture machine. A recent letter from the superintendent (L. J. Belt) summarizes some of the social uses of the building and community activities of the school as follows:

School and community library kept open to the public with a part-time paid librarian in charge.
Rest room provided.
Gymnasium open to business men one evening a week and to women another night; also to members of the American Legion another evening.
Office and headquarters furnished for the County Agricultural Agent and Farm Bureau.
Educational films run semi-weekly at cost.
Town band meets and stores instruments in the auditorium.
Free band concerts at frequent intervals.
Lyceum lecture course held in school auditorium under the direction of the superintendent.
A series of home talent plays is produced each year.
Further uses of the building for a community reception to teachers in September; for an Armistice Day dance, for community banquets, and as a meeting place for various local clubs and committees.

At Deer River, Minnesota, the high school district comprises fifteen townships including the village school of 19 teachers and 34 one-teacher rural schools, one of which is 53 miles from the center. Since the rural children attending from this large territory are compelled to live away from home, one wing of the last school building was made into an all-modern teacherage and dormitory, capable of accommodating 60 persons. One floor of this building is reserved for girls, another for boys, and the third for teachers and social quarters. In further description of the Deer River school plant and its community service Supt. H. E. Wolfe writes as follows:

In the new addition to our High School we have built a very commodious gymnasium and auditorium complete with shower rooms for both boys and girls, and a large stage. We also remodelled and enlarged our library. Co-operating with the ladies of the Women's Club we now have our library open evenings for two and one-half hours. A Business Men's Athletic Club was organized, and their members use our facilities on Thursday evenings of each week. The American Legion uses the gymnasium on Monday evenings. Tuesday night is given over to ladies of the town. Friday and Saturday nights to student activities, and Wednesday night is kept open for reserve purposes. Students above the fourth grade take turns in the gymnasium after school and the smaller pupils have it all Saturday afternoon.

Just across the hall from our gymnasium and auditorium we have set aside a room 24 x 30 as a Community Club room. Here meet the various non-political, non-sectarian organizations of the community. Numerous organizations make liberal use of this room. It is cared for by our regular janitor service and is at the disposal of any organization by arrangement.

# APPENDIX C

## THE COMMUNITY WORK OF COUNTY AND DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENTS

### I. SOME EXAMPLES OF THE COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES OF DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENTS IN NEW YORK STATE

SERIOUS effort has been made in selecting the following reports to locate District Superintendents whose work would be representative and at the same time illustrative of the most progressive practices in this field. All extracts printed are direct quotations from letters received in reply to requests for information on this subject.

#### (1) Report from Cora V. Luttenton, District No. 2, Orleans County, Albion, New York

The following is a brief summary of the community activities furthered by me while serving as Superintendent of the Second Supervisory District of Orleans County from 1912–1921:

1. Joined Barre Grange in 1912 and gave several talks on "Better Schools," in Barre Grange, also in other granges in our county during the ten years.

2. Gave community talks in churches, in school buildings, in neighboring towns at different times during the ten-year period, and held a number of Parent-Teacher meetings.

3. With my associate superintendents I worked out a plan for school exhibits at our County Fair, which was very successfully carried out for six years.

4. In 1913 I held a Field Day on July 4, at Gaines village for my 12 Gaines schools. The following was carried out on this day: A school exhibit with prizes donated by business interests; a school program rendered by the children; a line of march and drill by school children; athletic events by children; program rendered by community speakers; noon lunch served by districts on the school lawn, the twelve districts being all represented. Over 2,000 people were present and the day was counted a big success.

5. I was a pioneer in our Home Bureau movement working hard to get it started. I took the Home Bureau Agent to my schools, where she talked to the children on food values and junior projects. Our Home Bureau is now one of the strongest in the state. It is doing much for our schools. I have also taken our Farm Bureau Manager to our schools and had his help in project work. Both Home and Farm Bureau agents have spoken often at my teachers' meetings.

6. During the war, we did fine work in our Junior Red Cross. Articles came to me each week from the schools. I furnished yarn and other materials through our Red Cross Chapter. Great interest developed, and a splendid record was made. Thrift was developed through our W. S. S. campaign and clubs were

formed. At our community meetings for liberty loans I had my school children present and they sang war songs.

7. Through the Red Cross, as chairman of the Nursing Committee, I secured a very valuable nurse who aided our schools in medical inspection and health work. This helped to create a sentiment for a school nurse and this year a nurse is employed in Albion village school.

8. Two years ago I acted on the Tuberculosis Committee of our Red Cross and helped to bring about a plan to have a tuberculosis nurse for our county. This has been very successful.

9. I have found much interest in Junior Project work, and a number of children have begun projects, but it has been too difficult to continue this work without a leader.

10. During the past two years warm lunches have been served in a number of our schools and communities are helping to further this movement. Our Home Bureaus are big factors again in this.

### (2) Report from H. M. Brush, District No. 5, Steuben County, Arkport, New York

In brief the plan for our community work during the present year is as follows:

1. School fairs are held in every school during the fall months. Here the residents get an opportunity to see the regular school work exhibited on the walls. The boys and girls bring in their vegetables, manual training, sewing and baking and place it on display around the room. These events are held in the evening. The program consists of:

(1) Entertainment by the pupils, including regular class work, dramatization, physical training drills, etc.
(2) Outside speakers from Alfred Agricultural school and other places.
(3) The judging of exhibit work.
(4) The harvest supper.
(5) The social hour with singing led by a good singer.

2. The meeting of residents at the schoolhouse when the Christmas exercises are given.

3. A school social is held some time during the first part of the year to raise money for supplies needed by the teacher and pupils in making the work interesting and homelike. Money for victrolas is raised in this way. We have about twenty-six of the latter at the present time. We hope to have one in every school within the next year. The teachers plan to raise money without asking the trustee for it. About $500 was raised last year in this manner. One school raised $56. When patrons clearly understand the purpose in raising money they respond readily.

4. A get-together meeting is held in about two-thirds of the schools. At this meeting the residents join with the teacher and pupils in putting on a small play or spelling bee. The superintendent attended a school entertainment recently at Dansville, a German settlement, where the desks were taken up in the front of the room and the young people enjoyed a dance for two hours while the older residents sat back and looked on. The people were all there and the schoolhouse belonged to them.

5. The last event of the year is the field day in every town. Here the farmers lay aside their work and come out for a day's sport. The program consists of athletic events, baseball for men, another game for the boys, and a picnic dinner at noon. Every man who has ever played ball gets into the game. A good speaker from Cornell or Alfred is generally engaged to address the crowd after lunch when all are resting.

This in brief is the extent of our community activities for last year and we hope to do better before the present year passes.

### (3) Report from W. W. Rayfield, District No. 1, Monroe County, Webster, New York

In reply to your inquiry of the 9th I beg to state that in each of the five towns in my supervisory district, more or less community activities are carried on. For instance, this past Christmas in each of the five towns a community Christmas tree was held, in which political and religious lines were forgotten and small gifts were given to all. Each year at the close of school in three of the towns at least, school and community picnics are held, either in the local community or in the city parks. During the present winter twelve School Improvement Associations or Clubs have held one or more community entertainments in which the grown people have taken an active part. In one instance within the past three weeks one School Improvement Association at the invitation of a large community organization in another district repeated its play so that there was an exchange of courtesies. This spirit is growing, especially in my own town of Webster. Money is collected at this time and supplies and other materials are purchased for the school. On these occasions the little country schools are packed with people, patrons from neighboring districts attending.

In district No. 4 Webster a school fair is held every year during the latter part of September or the early part of October. A whole day is given to this. A tent is erected on the school grounds and entertainment provided for all who will come. This has become such an attractive event that many former residents of the district, together with their city cousins, make it an annual gathering place. From the proceeds secured a big community picnic is given to the children and parents at the close of school. A meeting of the School Improvement Association is held in this district each month. Entertainers of various kinds are brought to these meetings and public questions of the day are presented. The organizations mentioned are providing equipment and supplies for hot lunches. I try to attend these gatherings in so far as possible and this gives me an opportunity to present matters of school interest. From this I find that the school officers in these districts are more willing to keep their schools in good condition and in fact they have to here, because the sentiment of the people is trained to expect better things. I have given an illustrated lecture in each of these Social Center groups and have spoken to the Men's Clubs, Granges, and Church organizations and also at the commencement exercises which we have established in many of the schools.

At the Social Center of district No. 5 Irondequoit, a moving picture machine has been secured, and as many as 200 or more people have been present at their monthly meetings. An annual banquet is held at about $1.50 a plate and some 150 or more people attend. Through these efforts we have a complete playground and gymnasium equipment for the school. At present the building is being enlarged to the extent of $36,000 and as a result of this general community interest real estate is booming. Extra teachers will have to be secured within a short time.

Through these community activities it has been possible to organize live Red Cross organizations, school savings' clubs and health organizations. Premiums have been offered for the best suggestions on beautifying the home and school. The children have been encouraged to draw plans for landscape improvements. Water and lighting districts have been organized and during the Christmas season streets and homes have been profusely decorated by various colored lights. The attention of the city people has been called to this and hundreds of automobile parties traveled through the illuminated districts.

### (4) Report from Walter Elwood, District No. 2, Montgomery County, New York

The following tabular information is but part of an exhaustive report prepared by Mr. Elwood after making a careful self-survey of the school activities of his district through the use of a questionnaire submitted to his teachers.

Community Service

| | |
|---|---|
| Total number of schools in this supervisory district | 50 |
| Schools giving socials | 48 |
| Schools not giving socials | 2 |
| Number of socials given | 126 |
| Socials given to raise money | 48 |
| Amount raised at these socials and used for books, pictures, records, hot lunch equipment, etc. | $1,020 |
| Newspaper accounts of school socials | 48 |
| Total attendance at school socials | 4,464 |
| Neighborhood dances as part of school social program | 17 |
| School rooms having Christmas trees | 58 |
| School rooms having picnics at close of school | 50 |
| Schools contributing sets of compositions on Community Activities | 14 |
| School contributing sets of community problems in arithmetic | 22 |
| Schools with entries prepared for County Fair, 1921 | 44 |
| Schools with no entries | 6 |
| Entries for County Fair, 1921 | 404 |
| Pupils attending County Fair, September, 1920 | 1,078 |
| Schools visited by trustees | 29 |
| School not visited by trustees | 21 |
| Schools visited by people in the district | 45 |
| Schools not visited by people in the district | 5 |
| Visits by trustees to schools | 118 |
| Visitors from districts to schools | 402 |
| Teachers with homes outside of district | 41 |
| Invitations to district homes received by these teachers | 204 |
| Districts not inviting teachers to homes in social way | 6 |
| Schoolhouses used for gatherings not organized by the teacher | 22 |
| Schoolhouses not used for other gatherings | 28 |
| Teachers interested in the organization of local parent-teacher associations | 53 |

## II. COMMUNITY CENTER ORGANIZATION IN McDONALD COUNTY, MISSOURI

The following plan for school and community improvement in McDonald County, Missouri, was developed by County Superintendent Pryer E. Collings of Pineville, Missouri, and is quoted here from an article by Mr. Collings in the *Missouri School Journal*, for September, 1920.

The superintendent called together ten of what he considered the best leaders of the county and discussed three questions with them: (1) Is it possible for our county to have an improvement plan? (2) Is such a plan worth while? and (3) How can it be done? After quite a lengthy discussion the leaders decided that

something might be done in the way of improving the schools, wards, homes, methods of farming, and recreational activities, and that such, however little, would surely be worth while. Our next big problem was, how can this be done? We discussed what rural leaders had to say and discovered that they emphasized co-operation as the key to country life improvement. We adopted the idea and decided to call another meeting to be composed of leaders of all the agencies of the county (road clubs, schools, lawyers, merchants, real estate agents, farmers, churches, commercial clubs, etc.). In the meantime the leaders were given books and bulletins to read and requested to present their views at the next meeting.

At the next meeting the ten leaders discussed the three above questions with representatives of the various agencies of the county. Because the ten leaders were so optimistic regarding the plan the group, after considerable discussion, decided that they were quite willing to try it out for at least a year. At this meeting two committees were appointed—one to draw up a plan for organization, the other to work out a plan for community center activities. The leaders agreed that the next step was to call a mass meeting of the citizens of the county to meet at the county seat during the last week in August at which time the two committees were to report their findings.

The August meeting was our first Rural Life Conference. The meeting was fairly well attended by the people of the county. We arranged for some real old country singing, moving pictures (better schools, roads, homes, and farming methods), served refreshments, and had two outside speakers. At this meeting the ten leaders took a very active part in presenting their views relative to the value of a community organization. In this connection it was pointed out that the college of Agriculture would send speakers to all parts of the county to talk to farmers on better methods of farming; that the Normal School, University, and State Department would take an active part in improving our schools; and that the Extension Department would assist in farm projects and boys' and girls' club work. The following plan of organization and community center activities was then adopted at this conference.

*Community Centers.* The county was divided into twelve centers. The factors considered in determining each of the centers were the trading points and post offices of the rural people. For this reason there are one or more stores, a post office, bank, etc., in each of the centers. Such centers seem to be the natural meeting places of country folk. There are five, six, or seven one-room rural school groups around each of the small town schools. In most all instances the town school is the community meeting place. The ideal would be for this town school to be a large community school (elementary and high) serving the needs of all the people of the center (social, educational, recreational, etc.). We have a large county map showing the community centers, location of schools, roads and churches.

*Improvement Boards.* (1) *The Community Improvement Board.* The various local organizations in each center (road club, churches, schools, farmers' clubs, Red Cross, etc.) select one representative to serve on this Board. The Board selects a Community Leader who directs the activities of the Local Board. The Community Leader by virtue of his office is a member of the County Board. (2) *The County Improvement Board.* This Board consists of the county superintendent of schools and the Leaders from each of the twelve community centers, making thirteen members. The County Board directs the activities of the county through the Community Boards. Each board meets monthly to discuss the progress being made in carrying forward the improvement plan.

*Activities of the Boards.* The County Improvement Board plans, advertises, and directs the Annual Rural Life Conference, which is held in our county during the last week in August. At this conference, the county program for the year

is worked out. For instance, our first Rural Life Conference adopted the report of the program committee which recommended ten community center meetings for the year for each of the centers. It was further agreed also that these ten meetings should include the following community center activities:

(1) Entertainment Programs (singing, lantern slides, music, debating, spelling, etc.).

(2) Play Day Program (athletic contests, games and folk dancing—an all-day program).

(3) Special Day Program (Thanksgiving, Christmas, Lincoln, Washington, etc.).

(4) School Programs (reading, story telling, dramatization, singing, civic projects, agricultural projects, health and sanitation projects, etc.).

(5) Community Fairs (farm and school exhibits—an all-day program).

(6) Improvement Program (The community problems particularly selected for this were: Free textbook campaign, better road campaign and better health campaign).

The Community Improvement Board is held responsible for the execution of the county program in the various centers. The board plans for the ten community center meetings, advertises such meetings, and directs the meetings through the Community Leader. As indicated above, this board plans, at least, one community meeting from each of the first five community center activities above, and, at least, five meetings from the sixth (Improvement Program). In addition to this, the Community Leader sends the County Board a written account of each of the community meetings for publication in the county papers. In all probability the most important function of the Community Board is the study of Local Community needs and the report on these at the Rural Life Conference for incorporation in the county program. The Community Board is especially held responsible for the successful consummation of the Improvement Program (or special problems selected for that year).

With such natural centers and directing organizations, it is possible to help rural people share more fully their group activities and the wider things of life. Year after year new improvement problems may be solved through this organization, such as better home conveniences, better school buildings, better pay for teachers, longer school terms, better public roads, better community health, better methods of farming, better school attendance, better Sunday School, better church attendance, better recreational facilities, larger school districts (consolidation), better school equipment, better high schools, better use of leisure, better civic pride, better voting, better understanding of country needs, better live stock for the county, and other community problems. Enlisting the services of rural people in solving their problems is the only sane method to follow in making country life better. For such a community organization to be successful it must enlist the active support of all the agencies of the country. No one agency should assume control of the organization. Each agency should present its problems at the Rural Life Conference for incorporation in the county improvement program. For instance, the county superintendent who represents the schools should present his school problems at the Rural Life Conference and ask that such problems be made a part of the improvement program for the year. In so doing he enlists the services of all the agencies of the county in solving such school problems. Experience seems to indicate that it is not wise to attempt to solve more than one or two community problems each year in addition to the community activities.

# APPENDIX D

## SOME OUTSTANDING DEVELOPMENTS FOR FURTHERING THE COMMUNITY RELATIONS OF SCHOOLS IN OTHER STATES

IT HAS been assumed throughout this division of the present survey that State Departments of Education should carry large responsibilities for fostering educational sentiment and the proper community relations of schools. With this in mind the following concrete illustrations showing how some states meet this obligation have been inserted here. Prominent leadership in this field has been held for some years by Maine, Virginia, Kentucky and New Jersey and more recently by Delaware, North Carolina, South Carolina, Maryland, Minnesota, Oregon and Washington. Activities in only three of these states can be reported here but all are worthy of study. The one common element running through all these developments which should be especially noted by all interested in the best welfare of New York is that no state has been able to make an appreciable success of this work or develop the right community relations on the part of its schools until the State Department of Education has taken hold of the problem and provided a special state agent or director giving full time to this task. This provision, it will be recalled, has not yet been made in New York. (See Recommendations, p. 43.)

The three states quoted below represent three rather distinct types of organization for this work, namely: (1) Maine, where attention is placed exclusively upon the improvement of the local school and where children as well as adults have a large part in the responsibilities; (2) Virginia, with its semi-private and semi-official organization where the movement includes community effort of every type, but with special emphasis upon educational needs and the employment of the school as a community center; and (3) North Carolina, with an overhead type of organization created and supported by the legislature and administered exclusively through the State Department of Education.

### I. SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT LEAGUES IN MAINE

School Improvement Leagues are organized in 40 per cent of the rural schools of Maine, having been initiated in 1898. Their object as stated in the simple form of constitution used is: "To unite the pupils, teachers and friends of the

school in an effort to help and improve it, and to make it of the largest possible service to all the people of the community." The following paper prepared by Miss Florence M. Hale, State Rural Supervisor, Department of Education, Augusta, Maine, who has charge of this work, gives a very concrete and illuminating idea of both the method and achievements of these local clubs:

On one of the coldest days in winter after traveling several miles on a rural school visitation, I came to the door of what seemed to be an ordinary one-room school building. But when I entered the schoolroom all sense of the ordinary left me at once for here was a victrola, fine slate blackboards, an organ, and a group of most energetic looking boys and girls. As I sat down, one of the liveliest looking boys stepped forward to offer me his book, and as he did so I noticed that in the lapel of his blue serge suit was one of the little School Improvement League buttons, a red monogram with the letters S. I. L. M. surrounded by blue on a white background. As he saw me glancing at the attractive badge the little fellow said brightly, "I am a member of the School Improvement League of Maine"—and his air of pride was quite like that of the business man who touches his coat and tells you impressively that he is a Granger or an Odd Fellow or a Mason. Another little fellow pressed forward with his account book to show me that he was the Treasurer of the local league and that they still had money in the treasury. Upon my request, the Secretary of the League read to me from her book regarding the different ways in which the school had earned the money and purchased so much attractive equipment, including the victrola and pictures and also the new shades at the windows. The League had had a part also in providing the fine slate blackboards which I had admired so much upon my entrance.

It developed as the children excitedly related their experiences that the school had been in great need of good blackboards but that the town could not seem to see the sense of appropriating perfectly good money for blackboards when they had some that had been "used for twenty years and no fault found with them before!" "All right then," said the School Improvement League, "if the town won't give them to us, we'll just have to get them ourselves!" So the League, with the help of the teacher laid plans, decided that the way to a father's pocketbook is through the same proverbial means that has lured its coin for generations, and planned a "box social" when all the neighborhood should be invited to come and have a nice supper and a neighborly "get-together" with an entertainment by the children. At the close of the evening before the parents had gone, the children anxiously counted their money only to find that they had almost, but not quite, enough. "At first," as the little Secretary told me, "we thought we were going to be disappointed and weren't going to get our blackboards after all, but then some of the fathers said that they guessed after we children had tried so hard we weren't going to go without them!" Then the children went on to relate how the fathers "chipped in," giving dimes and quarters and "one man even gave a dollar" until there was money enough to buy the good slate blackboards which were so badly needed. "Then some of the fathers said there was no need of our hiring a man to put the blackboards up," they went on to relate breathlessly, "so some of the fathers came over and put them up and fixed the chimney and helped the teacher put a jacket around the stove, and us boys helped and now we just make the girls keep things clean!" concluded my informant with a masterful glance in the direction of the aforementioned feminine sex.

Pretty good for an example of getting the community and school to working together? This is only one of many incidents that could be related of how the School Improvement League has brought improvements about and has united

the home and the school in an effort to improve the conditions both in the schoolhouse and in the community.

The School Improvement League of Maine is a state-wide organization with headquarters in the office of the State Department of Education. It was founded in 1898 by the late Honorable W. W. Stetson, then State Superintendent of Schools. It grew and prospered for some years under the efficient leadership of Mr. Payson Smith, formerly State Superintendent of Maine, but now Commissioner of Education for Massachusetts. At the present time the organization is enjoying one of the most prosperous periods in its history. Over three thousand new members were added last year and today there are very few up-to-date rural schools in Maine but that have a League as a part of the school organization. The object of the League, as had been stated, is to secure the co-operation of the school and the home, and in this it succeeds to a remarkable degree.

## II. THE CO-OPERATIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF VIRGINIA

The Co-operative Education Association of Virginia, organized in 1904, is a quasi-governmental movement started through private initiative but officially supported by the governor, the state department of education, the higher institutions of learning and other state boards and agencies. Its primary purpose is to promote school improvement, though health, roads, agriculture, churches, recreation and other civic and social objectives are also stressed. It works chiefly through the school as a community center and seeks to federate all the forces of the community in a definite campaign for educational and social betterment. Its local units, known as community leagues, are similar to the parent-teacher associations, or home and school clubs of other states. These local leagues are federated into county organizations which in turn are united into district federations and finally into the general state association. Every county in the state is organized for this purpose and in 1921 there were 1,595 local leagues enrolling a membership of 41,852 persons.

The local or community leagues meet monthly, the county federation meets at the time of the teachers' institute in the fall, and the district rally occurs once a year, usually in the spring, as a part of the district educational conference. The state unit, which is known officially as the Co-operative Education Association of Virginia, meets annually also in connection with the State Teachers' Association during Thanksgiving week. At the last state meeting (1921) over 600 local league delegates were present.

The association also organizes the children and young people of local school districts into Junior Community Leagues, publishes a monthly bulletin known as the *Community League News*, which has a circulation of 3,500 subscribers, maintains a central office in Richmond, and employs a full-time Executive Secretary who travels constantly over the state stimulating and directing the work of the local organizations.

Throughout the eighteen years of its existence the Co-operative Education Association has taken first rank in creating public sentiment for school im-

provement and has initiated many significant movements for the advancement of education. Chief among these have been the conduct of the first state-wide educational conferences ever held in Virginia, the initiation of forces which led to the organization of the State Teachers' Association, the introduction of farm demonstration work, the promotion of legislation for compulsory attendance and rural school supervision, and the calling of a state-wide Conference on Rural Life in May, 1921, which was attended by 692 delegates. At this conference a State Council of Rural Agencies was created through which it is proposed to federate the various rural forces of the state and work out a practical program of "next steps" for rural improvement.

The success of the Co-operative Education Association has attracted wide attention and brought forth expressions of the highest commendation from many leaders throughout the country. "The thing that so impresses me with your work," wrote Secretary Franklin K. Lane in 1919 to Mrs. B. B. Munford, originator and president of the organization, "is that it is so sensible and that you do not waste your time with the discussion of vague theories as wide as the world, but get right down to the one big job of the world, making the home and the home town and all its parts better to look at and live in and work with." Another leading student of school and social welfare says: "As far as I am able to learn, your organization is the most appropriate, comprehensive, and effective manner of bringing about community co-operation with special reference to schools that is to be seen anywhere in the country, and its vitality is particularly evident from its success in accomplishing so much with so little money."

To give a more adequate comprehension of the work of this organization, which is so favorably commended in the above statements, the following general summaries and specific illustrations of activities are inserted. The complete reports from which these extracts are quoted and much other valuable literature on the organization and its work may be secured from the Executive Secretary, Mr. George W. Guy, Box 1667, Richmond, Virginia.

### General Summary of League Work

| | |
|---|---|
| Counties having leagues | 100 |
| Cities having leagues | 12 |
| Local leagues in the State | 1,595 |
| New leagues organized during year | 381 |
| Leagues making official report | 819 |
| Leagues paying dues | 570 |
| First-Rank Banner Leagues | 154 |
| Membership of leagues | 41,852 |
| Amount collected in league dues | $1,001 |
| Leagues reporting definite school work | 548 |
| Leagues reporting definite health work | 448 |
| Leagues reporting definite highway work | 338 |
| Leagues reporting definite farm work | 287 |
| Leagues reporting definite civic work | 256 |
| Leagues reporting recreational work | 240 |
| Amt. raised for local improvement by 819 leagues | $195,348 |
| Pieces of literature distributed | 170,000 |

### Field Work of the Executive Secretary

| | |
|---|---|
| Number of days in field | 105 |
| Number of counties visited | 53 |
| Number of addresses given | 93 |
| County and city league rallies attended | 32 |
| District League rallies visited | 6 |
| County Institutes attended | 43 |

### Typical Reports of the Work Done by Local Community Leagues

Oak Hill League, Albemarle County—Sand put on grounds; dragged road and repaired bridges; plans made and money raised for two buildings; storm-door built on porch; cleaned churchyard; helped in community Christmas celebration; held two entertainments; helped baseball team; raised $365.00.

Grub Hill League, Amelia County—Paid $75.00 toward building two-room school and put all material on ground; bought map, six lamps, twelve shades, library and book case; observed Blue Bird Day; secured speaker; organized Sunday School with fifty-six members; held several socials; raised $235.99.

Hot Springs League, Bath County—Extended school term, paying teachers $332.25; made improvements to buildings; put toilets in sanitary condition; held a clean-up week; organized clubs; church and grounds repaired; worked for better educational interests and co-operation in general; raised $443.45. Work done would amount to over $300.00 in addition.

Grampian League, Dinwiddie County—Built woodhouse; supplied song books; dug a well; bought picture molding, pictures, curtains and dozen pairs of scissors, border for blackboard and floor oil; worked on roads; co-operated with health authorities; made garden; beautified grounds; raised $25.25.

Seven Pines League, Henrico County—Put gravel on grounds; bought victrola; supplied benches, tables and dishes; financed school lunches; gave vegetables, canned fruit and milk to school; helped pay school nurse; installed two new toilets; held exhibit of fresh fruits and vegetables raised by members and canned goods put up by members; arranged socials and entertainments; helped pay for school booth at the State Fair and local fair; contributed to Red Cross and Armenian relief; raised $260.08.

Hiltons League, Scott County—From an almost worthless two-room school of sixty children this community will have a nine-room $26,000 building. League also put man on the road every working day of the year, keeping it dragged and repaired. With assistance of the State Board of Health we pushed vigorous campaign against flies, bad water and open closets. Children had drill and work in gardening; both church and Sunday School were reorganized and greatly improved and a new spirit for moral, civic and home improvements has spread over the entire community this year. "No such change has even taken place in the county as has taken place here since January 14th," says one of the officers.

## III. THE BUREAU OF COMMUNITY SERVICE IN NORTH CAROLINA

In 1917 the legislature of North Carolina passed an act designed to improve the social and educational conditions of rural communities by providing a motion picture service under state direction and expense. An annual appropriation of $25,000 was made for this purpose and the work was placed under the State Department of Education. This department enlisted the co-operation of the other chief departments and institutions of the state and with their

help organized a general Bureau of Community Service to take full charge of these motion pictures, but be directly responsible to the State Department of Education. A full-time director or chief was then procured for this Bureau with a librarian, physical director, director of mechanics, second mechanic and film inspector, as assistants, and the work began.

The first problem met was that of selecting, purchasing and providing for the transportation of the motion-picture machines. This was finally solved by planning a number of operating units. Each of these units consists of a moving picture projector, a Delco light plant for generating electrical current, extension cord, and screen, all mounted on a three-fourths-ton Dodge truck with panel body. Nineteen units of this kind have been operated since 1918, traveling an aggregate of 137,253 miles over the state, holding 4,385 meetings, and reaching 451,633 people in 26 different counties.

The work is organized in circuits planned on the county basis. In organizing a circuit ten community centers are selected, keeping in view their availability to the people of the county and their strategic importance in the possible future consolidation of schools. The total cost of the service per person attending has been found to be fifteen cents and since the state is authorized to pay but one-third of this cost, a small admission fee of ten cents each is charged of all who attend.

Within the county the work is placed in charge of a director selected by the county superintendent on approval of the State Department of Education. The general policy thus far has been to select women for these offices. These women direct all the meetings, motion-picture entertainments, and community-center activities in the ten locations included in their circuits, together with the plays and games, story-telling and junior citizenship work given in the schools. They also take the initiative in setting up some general form of community organization in the localities reached and in helping the people to translate the inspiration of the meetings into the solid facts of community betterment and progress. In this connection "county progress" films are being made in each county. These constitute a kind of pictorial survey of the county, showing both the best and the poorest of its schools, homes, farms, churches, roads, live-stock, etc., together with the characteristic activities of the people. When a county progress film has been used sufficiently in the county in which it was produced it is sent to other counties and finally filed in the permanent film library of the Bureau.

The vital influence of all this stimulation on school and community progress is readily apparent. Mr. W. C. Crosby, Director of the Bureau of Community Service, has issued a Biennial Report on its work for 1918–20, however, which may be obtained free from the office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Raleigh and in which he says:

> Each community has a meeting regularly twice a month as long as it gives an average attendance at the meetings equal to the school census of the district in which the meeting is held.

At each meeting there is a new picture program of six reels, which requires about an hour and a half to project, one-half hour or less being given to the discussion of community problems or other topics of interest to the community. The advantage of having these largely attended, regular community meetings is readily seen. If the farm demonstration agent wishes to conduct a special campaign for any purpose, he attends these regular meetings of the communities to present his subject. In like manner, the county superintendent, the home demonstration agent, the county health officer, the superintendent of public welfare, or other constructive State and county forces, have the same opportunity, and are encouraged to use it. The county director of community service is not allowed to give technical information. She may speak freely of the importance, for instance, of wheat production, soybeans, or other crops, but the moment some one asks her for information relative to the preparation of the soil, seeding, or any other technical features, she immediately refers him to the county farm demonstration agent. The same is true in technical matters of education, health, canning, roads, etc. Her duty in this phase of the work is to organize the human forces of the community into an efficient machine for the use of the various constructive forces of the state and county in working out definite community problems.

During the two years covered by this report our county directors have held 4,250 regular community meetings with a total paid attendance of 424,633—an average per meeting of 102 people. This is the most eloquent testimony we can present to show the high esteem in which the country people hold this service. This record is absolutely without parallel. Nothing else has ever been found that will draw such numbers of people into their regular community meetings from week to week, month to month, and year to year. The record is all the more remarkable when it is remembered that hundreds of these meetings are held in small schoolhouses in far out-of-the-way neighborhoods.

In addition to the above number of regular meetings held by the county directors of Community Service, there have been held by various members of the Bureau one hundred thirty-five special meetings, having an aggregate attendance of more than 27,000 people. It must be remembered, also, that this remarkable attendance record has been made in spite of the two epidemics of influenza and a long period of unprecedented depression among country people on account of the low prices of farm products.

# SURVEY OF NEW YORK STATE RURAL SCHOOLS

THE survey was organized with the following sections and directors:

**Administration and Supervision.** C. H. Judd.
**School Support.** Harlan Updegraff.
**Teachers and Courses of Study.** W. C. Bagley.
**School Buildings.** J. E. Butterworth.
**Measuring the Work of the Schools.** M. E. Haggerty.
**Community Relations.** Mabel Carney.

The results of the studies conducted by these directors and their associates have been embodied in a series of reports. The approximate dates at which these will be available for distribution are:

Volume I. **Rural School Survey of New York State.** (Preliminary Report) May, 1922.

Volume II. **Administration and Supervision,** October, 1922.
The District System. Shelby.
The Supervisory District. Brooks.
The Community Unit. Works.
Principles of Administration. Bobbitt.
The State System of Examinations. Kruse.
Health Education. Peterson.
The State Schools of Agriculture. Holton.
Junior Extension. Holton.
Summary and Recommendations. Judd.

Volume III. **School Support.** Updegraff. August, 1922.

Volume IV. **Teachers and Teacher Preparation.** Bagley. September, 1922.
Elementary School Curriculum. Brim.
Community Relations. Carney.

Volume V. **School Buildings.** Butterworth. June, 1922.

Volume VI. **The Educational Product.** Haggerty. July, 1922.

Volume VII. **The Rural High Schools.** Ferriss. August, 1922.
(The administrative features of the high school were studied in coöperation with Dr. Judd, while teachers and curricula were developed under the general direction of Dr. Bagley.)

Volume VIII. **Vocational Education.** Eaton. July, 1922.
(Prepared under the direction of Dr. Bagley.)

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These volumes may be obtained at seventy-five cents each, postpaid, except Volume II, on Administration and Supervision, which will be one dollar. Only a limited edition will be printed and those wishing to make certain of securing copies may place their orders at any time.

*Joint Committee on Rural Schools,*
*Ithaca, N. Y.*